DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 093 164 FL 005 801

AUTHOR Davies, Norman F.; Allen, John B.
TITLE System. A Newsletter for Educational Technology and Language Learning Systems. VOL. 2, No. 1.
INSTITUTION Linkoping Univ. (Sweden). Dept. of Language and Literature.
PUB DATE Jan 74
NOTE 79p.; Articles are in English, French, and German

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.75 HC-$4.20 PLUS POSTAGE
DESCRIPTORS Computer Assisted Instruction; *Educational Technology; Language Instruction; *Language Laboratories; Magnetic Tape Cassettes; *Newsletters; *Second Language Learning; Tape Recordings; Teacher Education; Teaching Methods

ABSTRACT

This issue begins with a description by R. Ariew of a computer-assisted system for teaching French. Called Programmed Logic for Automated Teaching Operations (PLATO IV), the system is in use at the University of Illinois. The remainder of the issue is devoted mainly to the language laboratory and the cassette recorder. These articles deal with the following topics: (1) the purpose of the language laboratory (W. A. Bennett), (2) the case against conventional language labs (J. Allen), (3) reel-to-reel labs (L. E. Blomquist), (4) language lab use at the university level (H. Balcaen), (5) teacher training with respect to the language lab (A. Andersson), (6) the importance of integrating language laboratory programs into classroom activity (L. Schiffler), and (7) an English teaching method developed at the German Institute for Distance Teaching (H. Maier and B. Strecker). An extensive annotated bibliography of works dealing chiefly with the language laboratory is provided. Synopses of work in progress at some English universities, a calendar of professional meetings in 1974, and a list of newsletters received by "System" conclude the newsletter. (PM)

VOL 2 No 1
JANUARY 1974

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A NEWSLETTER
FOR EDUCATIONAL TECHNOLOGY
AND LANGUAGE LEARNING SYSTEMS

ED 093161

S Y S T E M

General Editor: Norman F. Davies
University of Linköping
Sweden

Co-Editor: John R. Allen
(Work in progress, CAI) University of Manitoba
Winnipeg 19
Canada

Secretary, Special Interest Group

Jonn N. Winburne
University College
Michigan University
East Lansing

Published and printed by the Department of Language and Literature, University of Linköping. Available free of charge from the editors. NEXT EDITION: May

FL 005801

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Teaching French on PLATO IV

In order to describe some of the work that is being done in the teaching of French through Computer-Assisted Instruction at the University of Illinois, it is best to start with the description of the "tools" available to perform the task. Everyone will agree, I am sure, that the hardware components of a Computer-Assisted program are a crucial part of the total program. The complete PLATO IV[1] terminal consists of a graphic display device, a keyboard input, a random-access image selecter, a random-access audio message selector as well as a device that allows touch input. The graphic display device or plasma panel, was developed by D.L. Bitzer et al.at the University of Illinois. It is a 10 inch square glass panel in which small gas-filled cells can be made to light or be extinguished by computer control. The grid size is 512 by 512 cells each independent of one another. The panel writes at 180 characters (letters or numbers) per second and draws lines at 600 inches per second. On it can be displayed a variety of written and/or drawn messages. Such things as graphs, diagrams, any two dimensional geometric figure can be drawn, as well as any written character. The terminal is equipped with a standard set of 127 characters that can be accessed through the keyboard. These characters include all Roman lower case and upper case, mathematical symbols, some Greek letters, and widely used diacritics. In addition, the terminal provides another set of 127 characters that can be designed by the user. This writeable set is also accessed through the keyboard. This capability is very important for teaching languages using alphabets other than the Roman alphabet. Character sets for use in the teaching of Russian, Arabic, Hebrew, phonetics (International Phonetics Alphabet including all secondary feature diacritics) have been designed. Also available are bold, italics and script character sets that are used to emphasize any part of an explanation. Programs are also available to allow the user to write characters in any size and any angular rotation. For example, the letter "a" can be written in size .1 (very small) to size 20 (filling the screen) and rotation 0 (normal left to right) to rotation 180 (upside down). Other programs are available that facilitate the creation and display of odd-shaped figures such as map outlines, stick figures, cartoons, etc.

A slide selector is contained within the terminal. This device is designed to project photographed material onto the back of the translucent plasma display panel. The slide selector is an arrangement of

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1) PLATO, an acronym for Programmed Logic for Automated Teaching Operations, is a Computer-Assisted system under the direction of Professor D.L. Bitzer of the Computer-based Education Research Laboratory in Urbana, Illinois. For a general discussion of the PLATO system and its uses see:

1) Alpert, D. and Bitzer, D.L., "Advances in Computer-based Education," Science, 167, 1502, 1970.

2) Bitzer, D.L. and Johnson, R.L., "PLATO: A Computer-based System Used in the Engineering of Education," Proceedings of the Institute of Electrical and Electronic Engineers, 59, 960, 1971.

3) Bitzer, D.L. et. al. "The PLATO System and Science Education," CERL Report X-17, University of Illinois, Urbana, 1970.

pneumatic pistons and valves which bring a movable carrier assembly under a fixed lens. On computer command, the carrier, moving simultaneously in both the x and y coordinates, is placed under the lens. At this time a projection lamp is lit. The light emitted by the lamp is reflected on two mirrors and projected onto the back of the plasma panel. The carrier assembly holds a 4" by 4" microfiche on which up to 256 photographs may be placed (the microfiche is a 16 by 16 matrix, each image is reduced from a standard 35mm slide to approximately 1/4" square). The device is used in conjunction with the plasma panel to display information to the student. Any information that can be photographed can be displayed. With this device, PLATO IV adds a new dimension to computer-assisted instruction--the use of real life color photograps, diagrams, charts, and other realia, any of which may be incorporated into the program and displayed at the appropriate time. Since the slides are back projected onto the plasma panel, many kinds of arrows, lines, etc. can be drawn to be superimposed on the slide, pointing to features on the slide. Any text can also be written and superimposed, giving additional clarification or explanations to the student.

The touch input device has the appearance of a frame which borders the plasma panel. On each side of the frame there are 16 holes; within the holes are light sending-receiving elements. Each element sends light (not visible to the human eye) to another element on the other side of the frame. A grid of light, parallel to the plane of the plasma panel, is thus created. This grid delineates 256 touch squares on the plasma panel (a 16 by 16 matrix). Each touch square is .62 inches on a side. The area of the touch square is therefore .38 square inches, or about the area covered by the tip of one's little finger. When the touch panel is made active by the program and the student touches a location on the plasma panel, his finger interrupts two light beams, one on an x coordinate and one on a y coordinate. The touch panel emits a small beep to indicate that an input was sensed. The two touch coordinates are sent to the computer and are interpreted by the program. The student then receives feedback as to the accuracy of his response. The device gives a great deal of flexibility to the terminal. It allows the student an alternative means of response. It is an especially useful device for the teaching of children, for whom input through the keyset would be both tedious and time consuming. In the teaching of languages at the college level, it has proven to be a useful, time-saving device, especially when recognition or word ordering are the tasks to be performed. To recognize a word or the graphic representation of a word, the student responds by merely touching the panel with his finger. In word ordering, the student is instructed to touch words that are displayed on the plasma panel in the order in which they should be used to form a syntactically correct sentence. Of course, the same task could be performed by retyping the words in the proper order, but through the use of the touch device, it is made more specific to the problem at hand, avoiding unnecessary keyboard manipulations.

A very important component of the PLATO IV terminal is the random-access audio message selector. The audio selector is a device which allows the student to access an audio message in a very short time. This device is especially important when audio discrimination and other audio skills are to be taught in the foreign language. In appearance, it is a rectan-

gular box which houses electronic components. On top of the box a circular table revolves much in the same manner as a phonograph turntable. An arm, hinged on one side of the box rests slightly above the turntable. Four-track recording and playback magnetic heads are located on the arm. When a polyester-base magnetic disc is loaded on the turntable, and when the audio device receives the appropriate command from the terminal, the following things happen:
1) The magnetic head assembly moves radially with respect to the turntable and stops at one of 128 track positions. This action is effectuated by a set of five pneumatic pistons controlled by five valves.
2) The magnetic disc moves angularly with respect to the turntable (which is always rotating) and stops at one of 32 message starting positions on the chosen track. This action is accomplished by a set of four pneumatic pistons controlled by four valves.
3) The magnetic heads are lowered so that they come in contact with the magnetic disc and are held in a lowered position for as long as necessary to play the recorder message.
At the end of the message, the heads are lifted and the unit is ready to perform the operation once more. The action of moving the head assembly, moving the disc and lowering the heads is done in no more than three quarters of a second. Any recorded message can be easily located within that time. The turntable rotates at one revolution per eleven seconds. One revolution represents one track of recorded information. Since there are 128 tracks on the disc, the maximum recording time on the disc is 23.4 minutes (11 seconds x 128 tracks = 1408 seconds). A recorded message can be as small as one segment of one track (.343 seconds--there are 32 segments per track, and each track holds 11 seconds of recording time) or as long as the entire disc. The device is equipped with both playback-record and erase magnetic heads. This allows the student to record his voice onto the disc (erasing previous recordings) and to replay his recording at will. Any track (or tracks) can be designated as student recording track(s). The audio device has proven itself to be an indispensable tool: it can be used to provide audio stimuli, audio reinforcement, directions, etc... All audio messages are accessed by depressing a single key on the keyboard and are repeatable within three quarters of a second.

The capabilities of the PLATO IV terminal are not mutually exclusive, that is, any and all resources for presentation or input can be used at the same time. Presentations can include graphics, slide, and audio, in any combination. The student can respond throught the keyset or through the touch panel, or he can be given the option to use either input device. Feedback to the student can also vary: it could range from a short written message to a long explanation. The feedback could include an audio message, or a slide, or a combination of a written message, a slide, and an audio message, all specific to the student response.

When written feedback is desired, a wide choice of different types is available.
1) In dealing with short answers (for example in a multiple choice or yes/no question), a simple "ok" or "no" feedback is usually sufficient. With an "ok" judgement, the student goes on to the next frame. With a "no" judgement, he erases his answer and reenters a new response. Of course,when necessary, longer messages can be written explaining why the answer is wrong or a reinforcing message can be written or played

when the answer is correct.
2) With longer answers, more involved feedback can be given. It is possible to point out misspelled words, wrong words, and words out of order. For example, if the student has to translate the sentence "He has a white house" into French, and he writes "Il est une blonche maison", the feedback would be:

Il est une blonche maison. no
XXX ~~ ~~

The feedback indicates that the word "est" is a wrong word, "blonche" is misspelled (close to being correct), and "maison" is out of order. This feedback is generated by a complex program.[2] No special effort on the part of the user is required for the student's response to be thus marked. The program is flexible enough to allow the teacher (or the student in some cases) to specify whether misspellings, wrong words, or words out of order should be ignored or considered mistakes. The program also allows the teacher to enter expected synonyms and alternate answers so that a large number of responses can be accepted for any given problem. It is also possible to inhibit the marking process and substitute feedback in the form of sentences or even in the form of audio messages.

3) In some situations, it is necessary to stop the student while he is answering to give him hints as to how to proceed. In other words, it is useful to initiate judging and feedback immediately after each word is entered by the student. The program works in the following manner: If the first word of the answer is correct, the program lets the student proceed normally (it may give him a word of encouragement); otherwise, a specific message is written on the screen, pointing out the error. Every subsequent word entry is processed in the same manner until the student completes the task correctly.

4) When the student's task is to practice the orthography of a new word, another kind of feedback is necessary. In such a situation, it is desirable to evaluate each letter entered by the student. A letter judging and feedback program is available on PLATO. In this case the student is allowed to continue only if he enters the letters constituting the correct answer in the proper order. If he types a wrong letter, it is quickly crossed out then erased. With this format, as with other formats, the student is urged to solve the problem on his own. If he reaches an impasse and needs help, he has recourse to several alternatives:

1) He could ask for the correct answer. In this case, by pressing a designated key, he can see either the whole word or the letter he is to write. Asking for the answer usually means that the problem will be presented again later.

2) He may ask for an explanation of the problem he is solving. In this case, by pressing a key, a spelling guideline might be presented.

3) He may postpone the problem until he has had more practice.

4) He may, having achieved a given level of performance, exit from the exercise.

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[2] see Tenczar, P. and Golden, W., "Spelling, Word, and Concept Recognition," CERL Report X-35, University of Illinois, Urbana, October 1972.

Depending on the learning situation, any one of the various judging and feedback programs may be used. Similarly, any or all of the technical resources may be employed to teach in the most efficient way possible. It should be stressed that there is no language teaching method inherent to PLATO. The user is free to use any teaching method (audio-lingual, structural, etc...), any lesson structure (linear, branching, etc...), and any type of exercise (transformation, translation, etc...) he prefers. The PLATO system should be thought of as a means through which the teacher can a) incorporate four media (graphics, visual, audio, touch) in a language lesson and b) allow the student to interact with the lesson at his own pace.

Among the many different kinds of exercises that have proven to be useful in foreign language teaching, I will describe those that have worked expecially well with PLATO.

Written or touch exercises

This group of exercises includes some of the more traditional types such as word or sentence translations, simple or multiple transformations, fill-ins, and multiple choice exercises. All of these can be (and are) implemented successfully on this system.

On PLATO, vocabulary exercises become more flexible: the student can decide which words should be included in the exercise. Each word is shown to him in the foreign language. He is asked to translate the word mentally. Upon pressing a key, he is given the corresponding native language translation. If he is satisfied with his translation, he goes on to the next word; if not, he can mark the word for active presentation. During the active presentation, only the words which he marked are presented. This time, the student is asked to type a translation given a native language cue. This process gives the student control over the vocabulary items he practices and eliminates work on items with which he is already familiar.

Another type of exercise which is well accepted is visually cued. Given a slide depicting an action, and symbols describing tense, sentence type, person, etc., the student is asked to generate a well-formed sentence in the foreign language. The symbols are easily learned, so that the student spends his time reviewing sentence patterns using a variety of verbs, tenses and persons. Of course, appropriate helps and feedback are available to guide the student to the formulation of the correct sentence.

The touch panel is used with some exercises to shorten the time required to respond, and therefore quicken the pace of student-lesson interactions. In one touch panel exercise, prepositions are displayed on the top half of the plasma panel and a sentence containing a blank space is displayed on the lower half. When the student touches a preposition, it is automatically written in the blank space and the completed sentence is judged. Similar exercises have been written to practice a variety of grammatical concepts (use of pronouns, adjective agreements, etc.). Another touch panel exercise stresses the importance of correct word order in French. As with the other exercises, words are randomly presented on the top half of the display device. The student's task is to reestablish a correct word order. As he touches each word, it is erased from the upper half of the panel and written on the lower half, forming a sentence. When all of the words have been entered, the student

touches a designated place on the panel to initiate judgement. Alternate possible answers are scanned before the feedback is given.

Another form of presentation is used when the student is to read a paragraph or a long passage: a portion of the text is displayed on the plasma screen. As he reads, if he encounters a word or an expression with which he is not familiar, the student touches the word or expression and sees various levels of explanation pertinent to his problem. He can "roll" the text forward or backward, and may even time the presentation to practice reading in context (or speed reading). The student is later tested on his comprehension of the material.

Audio exercises

Many kinds of audio presentations are possible with the random access audio message selector. The short access time of the device makes it possible to randomly present material for phonetic transcriptions, dictations, orally-cued simple and multiple-slot substitutions, and a variety of other exercises where a written response is based on the comprehension or the transformation of an oral cue. It should be stressed at this point that PLATO cannot evaluate oral production. Only input given through the keyset (written input) or through the touch panel (touch input) can be evaluated. Much useful work can be done, however, by having the student record his voice and giving him an audio model with which to judge the accuracy of his response (of course, the student should be trained to be able to make such an evaluation). Using this technique, the student can be given the opportunity to repeat sentences for intonation, to perform oral substitutions, to check on his pronunciation, etc. The format of the exercise is very simple: the student is given either an audio or a written cue and is asked to perform an oral task. When he is ready, he presses a key (or touches a panel location). A warning light indicates that the audio device is in the record mode. The student gives his answer into a microphone. He presses a key when he has finished speaking. The device then repeats the student recording, and, without extraneous pauses, plays the model answer. The student may, by pressing one key, repeat both audio messages immediately. He is then instructed to decide whether his recorded answer was satisfactory, or whether the problem should be brought back for a later review.

Combining a visual and audio presentation with touch panel input, a different type of exercise can be created: the student sees a slide depicting people, places or things. He hears a word (which he may replay). His task is to touch the visual representation of the word he has heard. With a correct answer, the word may be written below the slide for reinforcement; with a wrong answer, a circle, drawn on the slide, may point out the correct response. This type of exercises has proven to be a fast, effective way to practice audio recognition. A written cue can be substituted for the audio cue to test reading skills.

Other types of computer-assisted exercises, using the present PLATO equipment, are of course possible. At present, research is being carried out at the University of Illinois to explore the many ways the PLATO system can be used to teach foreign languages. A course which uses all of the PLATO resources is being implemented for basic French by Professor Fernand Marty. Professor M. Keith Myers is preparing a complete

course on French phonetics. Individual lesson units reviewing or testing reading comprehension, syntactic structures, cultural information, and vocabulary have also been prepared. As more computer-assisted lessons are written and as more PLATO terminals are made available (34 are at present devoted to foreign language instruction at the University of Illinois), we can look forward to the day when a larger number of students will be able to enjoy the benefits of learning French with PLATO.

Unit for Foreign Language Study and Research
University of Illinois
Urbana, Illinois 61801

BILINGUAL EDUCATION

The main theme of the May issue will be systems of bilingual education. Contributions already received or promised are:

Elaine C. Condon, *Bilingual Education*
Betty Lou Dubois, *Written English Communicative Competence of Chicano University Students*
E. Glyn Lewis, *The conceptual differences between a second and a foreign language and their relationship to the development of bilingual/foreign language studies (title not yet finalised)*
Huberto Molina, *The SWRL English Language and Concepts Program for Spanish-Speaking Children: 1971-1972 Tryout*
Richard M. Preston, *A Need for Preliminary Assessment in Bilingual Education.*

Further contributions on this or other themes in our field will be welcome. A bibliography of bilingual education would be especially useful - any offers?

COMMENT

The following pages contain a number of articles devoted to the language laboratory and the cassette recorder, as complementary or even as rival aids to language learning. My colleague John Allen puts provocatively the case of those who find the language lab unnecessarily expensive, time-consuming and inflexible - in fact a deterrent to learning. The Swedish linguist Hans Jalling, on a visit to America in 1968, found the laboratory "the most hated building on campus" in the eyes of many students (see System 1/1). Lars Erik Blomquist, the director of the largest "learning studio" in Scandinavia, perhaps in Europe, (for the planning of which Hans Jalling was largely responsible), puts the case for the defence using his own experience.

We must not exclude the possibility that both sides are right. Arsenic is both a poison and a medicine, depending on the way it is used, and the student's or the teacher's reaction to the language laboratory will depend very much on their immediate experience of the medium. The laboratory may take many forms, and before any particular type of equipment is selected, there must be a very careful needs analysis. There is no doubt that much - perhaps even most - of the work done in laboratories today could be done equally well and (perhaps with cassette recorders) at far less expense in the greater comfort of the home or in the more flexible environment of the classroom, as is pointed out by both John Allen and Ludger Schiffler.

On the other hand, technical developments in many fields have made the multi-media laboratory a possibility, and William Bennett's account of the audio-visually equipped laboratory in Cambridge where the learner of, say, Chinese can enjoy simultaneous presentation of sound and symbol under controlled conditions, indicates possibilities beyond the range of the humble cassette recorder.

Such developments cost money, and it is legitimate to question the cost-effectiveness of many investments in expensive hardware. This is especially so when the complementary investment of money, time and training in software is lacking, which is all too often the case. And many others may share my own uncomfortable feeling that we ought to be doing more in this field. For as Ludger Schiffler forcibly points out, the programmes are the thing, the medium is most decidely not the message. What sort of equipment you need depends on what sort of programmes you have or intend to use. Conversely, if you buy advanced technology, this should be reflected in the quality and variety of the programmes.

Hubert Balcaen is the voice of many laboratory directors who are sent students for the odd hour per week and are expected to produce results. If the lab is unpopular under such conditions, it is not surprising. Several of our contributors point out what one thinks ought to be obvious, but clearly is far from generally accepted in practice, that work in the laboratory should be integrated with other course items. To isolate one or two language skills and banish them to the laboratory will do neither the skills nor the laboratory much good. And this is, in fact, a potential danger with the media centre, or workshop, or whatever such an institution, independent from the language department as such, may be called. A situation where, for instance, pronunciation

training in the laboratory is quite unconnected with the departmental course in phonetics, where the student hears a listening comprehension exercise on a country's electoral system two weeks after he has sat his final exam in civics, where the teacher correcting his grammar or written exercises is unable to refer him to relevant practice tapes because he does not know they exist, is clearly unsatisfactory. Ake Andersson's call for teacher training is as true at the university level as in school - but how many teachers at any level have been trained in the potentialities and the use of the laboratory? Have learnt how to make programmes? How many think it is none of their business; perhaps even "beneath" them? Pedagogical in-service training of this type, especially at university level, is virtually non-existent in most countries. The good media centre will act as a stimulus to departmental teachers, will involve them in programming, give them the necessary technical assistance and also help them keep abreast of the latest thinking and practical developments in the field. The good teacher will be receptive and prepared to experiment.

I have myself little doubt that there is a place both for the full language laboratory and for the individual cassette recorder, and they have been combined successfully in the distance teaching described by Harald Maier and Bernd Strecker. My own department is now engaged in a similar project which relies heavily on the tape cassette both for instruction and communication, but we also know the present limitations of this equipment. The old nursery rule of a place for everything and everything in its place holds good in this sphere too, but such efficient utilization of available learning aids requires careful planning and the cooperation of all concerned.

The language laboratory will continue to occupy our attention, so if the following articles inspire you to reply or to supplement, your contribution will be very welcome.

Norman F Davies

John R. Allen

The Case Against the Conventional Language Laboratory

Language laboratories have been in existence for over twenty years, certainly long enough to have demonstrated their potential in a variety of environments with a variety of material. During that time, manufacturers have continually devised newer and more expensive systems to enable each student to control a tape recorder at the touch of a button as he listens to his errors in ever higher fidelity. A monitor sitting at a central console can eavesdrop and even correct the student's errors with almost as much facility as if there were no language laboratory between the two. By replacing the human element with an indefatigable tape recorder, all the drudgery of audio-lingual drills can be taken away from instructors and given to the students.

And yet it seems that, in case after case, the language laboratory has not lived up to its promise. It is hard to find empirical evidence that students learn languages any better with this system. Certainly their pronunciation has improved, but the fact that they, like Skinner's mice, can give a conditioned response to a specific stimulus certainly does not show they have learned a language. To give an example, I have a friend who "learned" German with the audio-lingual method and had a chance to visit Stuttgart for one day on a stopover flight. As he was walking in the center of town, a man came up and asked him, in German, "Excuse me, where is the railroad station?" It was a phrase my friend had heard all too often in the language lab. He answered quickly "Gerade aus!" as he had been drilled, and the other man thanked him and hurried off. It was only later that my friend realized what he had been asked. Unfortunately he had no idea where the station really was. Now if we define language as a means of communication, then in this instance my friend certainly did not show he knew German. There was no communication in that instant between those two men, however correctly he pronounced "Gerade aus!"

That one example could easily be dismissed were it not for the depressing evidence found with so many language laboratories. That wonderful machine--which was once heralded as the means by which students could, finally, learn a second language as easily as their first by using aural/oral skills as a foundation for reading and writing--has become in so many instances a white elephant: something requiring much care and expense but of little practical value. Students simply do not want to go to the trouble of using language laboratories. To justify the expense of these machines, then, attendance at laboratories is often mandatory and thus the time-clock becomes a permanent fixture in the Orwellian universe of the language lab. The student reaction is quite predictable. Throughout North America, where language labs were first developed and where they are still heavily used, a strong movement has arisen to abolish language requirements from a number of universities. The success of

that movement has led, similarly, to a sharp drop in the number of students taking language courses before entering the university. With less students at all levels wanting to learn foreign languages, a severe unemployment problem has arisen in the language teaching profession, a problem which is with us today and which discourages other students from specializing in languages at present, no matter what method is used in teaching them. A vicious circle has thus been created which, in the long run, can do much harm in a world in which men need more to understand and communicate with their fellow man.

How could the language lab, which orginally promised so much, have led to such a disaster? Can anything be done about this situation without entirely abandoning training in the aural/oral skills? The answers to both questions are related, for by understanding what went wrong with the laboratories, we can discover how those faults can be corrected.

A major fault with the conventional language laboratory is its expense. This includes not only the eletronic equipment but also the room in which it is housed and the maintenance of both. An installation often requires, in addition, a director and/or supervisor, along with monitors who can answer questions and watch that none of the equipment is abused or stolen. This expense could be justified if the audio-lingual method brought an overwhelming improvement in language ability, apart from pronunciation, but that is hard to prove.

When a student uses a language laboratory, it is at a heavy price of his patience, his interest in continuing language learning, and especially of his time, which brings us to another major fault of those devices. A student must measure not just the time he spends drilling but how long it takes him to get to and from the lab. It is no wonder then that if he is required to spend four half-hour periods there per week, he will prefer to go once a week for two hours, even when he knows that shorter but more frequent sessions are more helpful. Eight fifteen minute sessions would be better than four half-hour periods, but that is arely assigned: by the time a student finds a recorder that works, takes off his overcoat, finds the proper tape, gets settled, he is well into the fifteen minutes which, of course, have to be cut short to allow him to get his affairs back in order and the recorder and/or tape put away so he can punch out again on the time clock. A second major obection to the conventional language laboratory is, then, that it wastes much of students' time before and after the actual drilling, a wastage compounded the more the student tries to follow the precept that, in language learning, the frequency of exposure is more important than the amount.

The best results with language laboratories are found only with students (and teachers) who are highly motivated and thus oblivious to the oppressive atmosphere created by these unthinking machines. That brings us to a final objection to these devices. The student who has to come--often from a considerable distance and possibly through rain or snow--to a dull laboratory is not likely to want to appreciate such nuances as the difference in French between nous and nue. A laboratory is simply an unattractive place in which to learn a language. The example above describes a student coming to a lab in bad weather, but it is even worse when, on a warm day with the sun shining, a student comes

to the psychologically cold atmosphere of any lab.

The conventional language laboratory then has its faults, but it would be a pity if benefits it has afforded during the past two decades were quickly discarded. Surely we do not have to throw the baby out with the bathwater. We must give students a chance to hear and practice the spoken language, whether we use the audio-lingual method or not. It is not sufficient to teach modern language only through reading and writing. We no longer live in a world where travel to other countries is the prerogative of only the rich and where the written word alone suffices for communication. Students learning a language today can reasonably expect at at some point in their lives to have occasion to hear it and speakt it. How then can language teachers ensure that each student has ample opportunity for individual aurol/oral practice without the expense, wastage of time, and oppression found in the conventional laboratory?

A possible answer might lie with the ubiquitous cassette tape recorder. Twenty years ago when tape recorders were not found in every household, it seemed wise, at colleges and universities, to set aside a special room with these expensive devices so that language students could hear a variety of native speakers while a technician could be on hand to show how the machines worked and fix them if they malfunctioned. Today, when easy-to-use cassette recorders can be purchased by anyone at low cost, when many students already possess such devices for their own amusement, it seems folly for language teachers not to take advantage of the situation. If instead of using a language laboratory each beginning student is required to have a portable cassette tape recorder and enough blank tapes to hold all the exercises he will be hearing for one semester, almost all of the expense and space now devoted to language labs can be eliminated. Instead of large banks of tape recorders and booths filling up classrooms and requiring attendants and a technician, all a language department needs is a small high-speed tape cassette duplicator and enough blank tapes to handle the needs of one semester of students. A few weeks prior to the beginning of courses, the various exercises can be recorded, four at a time at high speed, onto the blank tapes. At the start of classes, students exchange their tapes, still factory sealed to ensure quality, and get the pre-recorded language drills. The blank tapes can then be used for recording the exercises to be used the following semester when the procedure starts anew. While students would be forced, under this system, to make some slight expenditures, those would not be unreasonable when compared to the other expenses of getting an education, especially when one considers that when the course is over the tape recorder and tapes can be used for other purposes or sold again.

Of course there are some disadvantages to this system. Few cassette recorders attain the fidelity of the best reel to reel tape decks found in the most expensive language labs and students have to forgo such features as a "backspace" control. The cassette recorder is a simple, inexpensive device, suitable for recording music and excellent for handling speech. It is not hard to stop it and rewind back a bit, as with a backspace control, but the action is not automatic. Perhaps a greater disadvantage is that unless a very special recorder is used by the student, he will not be able to record his answers during a drill. Just how important that is when a student is working alone in a language

laboratory is a question currently being debated by linguists, but should anyone particularly want that feature, he could easily borrow (or buy) a second recorder. My own feelings are that his time is more efficiently spent in hearing only the correct answers, not his own mistakes. A final disadvantage of the cassette system is that students cannot be forced to work with their tapes: the instructor has to motivate them to want to use these devices on their own. Yet such encouragement might well be preferable to the coercion now used in so many language laboratories. Despite a few faults, then, a cassette recorder seems to be a better device for teaching and learning a language than the usual laboratory.

The case against the conventional language lab can be summarized very briefly: it is too expensive; it has not demonstrated an overwhelming improvement in language teaching to justify those costs; it makes inefficient use of student time before and after the actual drilling, and it creates an oppressive atmosphere which has contributed substantially to the lower enrollments in language courses during recent years. On the other hand, the cassette recorder has none of those disadvantages. It is cheap, efficient, and can be used anywhere at any hour of the day or night--even while a student is walking to his classes. With such a viable alternative, serious thought should be given as to whether the language laboratory can continue to be justified in today's schools and universities.

Romance Language
University of Manitoba
Winnipeg 19
Canada

Lars Erik Blomquist

Reel-to-Reel Labs Outdated?

Reply to Professor Allen

It is difficult to believe that the "traditional" reel-to-reel lab Prof. Allen describes is the only alternative to his cassette system. His case against convention, it seems, misses the mark. Everyone knows that cassette techniques have developed rapidly in the last decade. However, one should not forget that the reel-to-reel labs of today are not always the same as those of yesterday. In fact, there are many advantages that Prof. Allen is not willing to admit.

To take his arguments one by one:

1. A reel-to-reel lab is too expensive

It is true that a number of traditional labs, scattered all over the university area, each serving one language department or a group of departments might add considerably to the expenses for construction and staffing. It is also well-known that traditional labs tend to be either too small or too big for their intended purpose, thus causing extra expenses. On the other hand, a highly centralized workshop, offering the same administrative, pedagogical and technical routines to all departments concerned, a lab where a high degree of flexibility as to group studies and individual training is assured, minimizes the initial costs and pays off subsequently. At the end of the sixties, when the new Stockholm university building was planned, one percent of the sum total for construction and equipment was assigned to a language lab, or, more adequately, a studio, open to all interested in giving instruction with the help of taped materials. The lab was equipped with 185 recorders, six master consoles, a number of slave consoles, an intercom panel, a recording studio and copying facilities. To-day the Stockholm university lab has a capacity of 10.000 student hours per week and is used to about 80%. Twenty-two language departments are served. Staff costs have been brought to a minimum. In fact, expenses for staffing are much lower now in comparison with the situation before 1971, when at least four different labs, differently equipped, served a considerably smaller number of students. It goes without saying that centralization is most advantageous when it comes to repair and service. Pedagogical experiences can easily be exchanged among the teachers of different languages, when there is a central production unit attached to the lab. A reel-to-reel lab can be managed by a minimum of staff and, once bought, it can serve students at negligeable costs.

2. It has not improved language teaching sufficiently to justify the costs

A language lab - be it a traditional one or Prof. Allen's cassette system - should never lead a secluded life of its own. A programmed tape is nothing at all, unless it is integrated into the pedagogical process as a whole. All lab materials should be related to classroom activities, to lectures, to written tests. Students tend to work effectively in the lab only when they feel that their efforts end up in a better understanding of other training items. Who ever said that language labs were meant only for dull drill exercises? Experiments at Stockholm university show that literature courses, preferably poetry, might successfully be included in the lab programme. Let the students listen to the voices of authors, politicians, recordings of historical interest, put in all the extra-lin-

gual material you can think of! To secure variety of production, a rapid change of instruction materials even during a 45-minute lesson, suitable monitoring and the creation of good group standards - the reel-to-reel lab, if easy to handle, still seems to be the best solution. Disillusion will only be found in those teachers who think that a lab is the sole way to improve teaching. Lab exercises, competently led by qualified instructors, are an aid to improvement, nothing more. After all, one can't blame the language lab as such, if the students' results turn out to be depressing. The important thing is what you put into it - Skinner's drills, or tapes that make a high degree of individualization possible.

3. It makes inefficient use of student time before and after drilling

Mr. Allen seems to imagine an old-time lab where tapes are handed to clumsy students for use on hot-rod machinery. The truth is that work in reel-to-reel labs has been highly rationalized in recent years. All recorders may be placed in racks in a central machine hall. The students may control their tapes through panels on their desks. All a teacher has to do before the scheduled lesson is to make a telephone call to the lab staff and order the actual number of tapes. The tapes are then placed on the corresponding recorders by the technician. When studying individually, a student can start working not more than 45 seconds after he has ordered his tape.

When being monitored in a group, a student who has finished his drill exercise can choose another programme in the series, ordering the new tape through the intercom panel. He can then work on his own or switch over for questioning and control to an assistant teacher at the slave console. This flexibility, this double monitoring, can hardly ever be realized by a cassette system.

4. It creates an oppressive atmosphere

This is simply not true. Modern language lab planners have long tried to do away with the prison-like cabins causing claustrophobia among the students. Nowadays, a primary task is to de-dramatize lab training. Some successful results can be noted already. It should be as convenient for the student to work in the lab as it is for him to read a book in a library. When he has no recorder in front of him and can use a panel to activate his tape, the student no longer feels exposed to a complicated machine. The more efficient the headsets, the less the need for partition walls. (At Stockholm, they are all done away with). Furniture, desks, lamps should be of the same design as in the library. Thus a "learning landscape" is created. At least one section of the lab can be equipped with TV-monitors and other audio-visual aids. The teacher should have the opportunity to choose, in the same room, between ordinary classroom training and lab training, also to add visual elements to the instruction.

What has been said above does not exclude the use of cassette recorders. On the contrary, a modern language lab can easily furnish the students with cassette copies of tapes required. This is especially important, of course, for distance instruction and for those students who, for one reason or another, do not have the time to attend lectures. Strangely enough, however, Prof. Allen, when praising the cassette system, does

not mention the copyright problems. What happens, if a teacher sees his lab materials reproduced and only slightly revised used on a commercial basis by some of his adepts? As long as there are no universal copyright standards for teaching materials, one can fear that teachers are not willing to produce only for cassette use. Even from this point of view, controlled lab training will continue to be justified.

Director
Lärostudio
University of Stockholm

The Language Laboratory in
the Teaching of English

British Council Course 430
23 June - 5 July 1974
London

Fee: £100 semi-pension
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Laboratoire de Langues et Enseignement Traditionnel au Niveau Universitaire

Depuis cinq ans que je suis responsable des laboratoires de langues dans la Faculté des Lettres de l'Université du Manitoba, je me suis maintes fois interrogé sur les meilleures façons d'utiliser le laboratoire de langues dans le cadre universitaire traditionnel. La question que je me suis posée avec le plus d'inquiétude est la suivante: cet auxiliaire est-il utile, comme "extension" seulement d'un enseignement traditionnel? Ou encore, l'usage d'un laboratoire de langues ne remet-il pas complètement en question la façon traditionnelle d'enseigner la langue seconde au niveau universitaire?

A notre université, les laboratoires sont utilisés pour l'enseignement de la langue seconde. Pour le français, nos étudiants, anglophones pour la plupart, arrivent des écoles publiques ou privées avec, en moyenne, quatre années de français. La plupart ont une assez bonne compréhension orale mais peu de facilité orale. Dans une programme universitaire prévoyant quatre heures de classe et une heure de présence du laboratoire par semaine, quelle fonction utile le laboratoire peut-il exercer? N'est-il pas plus utile de songer à un système où l'étudiant passerait deux périodes de vingt-cinq minutes au laboratoire de langues, au lieu d'une période de cinquante minutes? Le laboratoire de langues est-il efficace, s'il n'est utilisé qu'une heure par semaine, soit d'un bloc, soit répartie en deux périodes de vingt-cinq minutes?

Ces questions qui tentent de découvrir si une période de cinquante minutes par semaine, au laboratoire, est plus ou moins efficace que deux périodes de vingt-cinq minutes se répondent peut-être en posant une question beaucoup plus fondamentale en rapport à l'apprentissage de la langue orale. Que voulons-nous enseigner à nos étudiants de première année universitaire? Voulons-nous leur enseigner quelques notions de littérature, quelques notions de grammaire et, si possible, à parler, le tout à raison de cinq heures par semaine? Ou, voulons-nous simplement remplir les exigences d'un programme traditionnel jugé efficace comme tel? Quelle que soit la réponse valable à ces questions, je dois dire que je trouve difficile d'employer le laboratoire de langues avec profit dans le programme traditionnel de cinq heures par semaine.

En plus d'essayer de savoir si le laboratoire est profitable comme simple accessoire d'un enseignement traditionnel en première année universitaire, je crois qu'il convient de rappeler les autres conditions essentielles que doit remplir un programme d'enseignement des langues si on veut que l'auxiliaire appelé "laboratoire de langues" soit efficace. En premier lieu, les programmes de la classe et du laboratoire doivent être reliés étroitement. Le laboratoire doit permettre de reprendre et de renforcer les structures et le lexique appris et expliqués en classe. Une heure par semaine de renforcement est-il nécessaire? Est-elle utile même?

Deuxièmement, quelle est la meilleure intégration possible de la classe et du laboratoire au niveau du genre d'exercices et au point de vue du moment où le laboratoire est utilisé? Les exercices du laboratoire, doivent-ils être seulement semblables à ceux faits dans la classe de langues, ou ne doivent-ils être qu'une reprise exacte de ces exercices?

Et enfin, à quoi doivent mener les exercices de laboratoire? Est-il essentiel que la phase de ré-emploi des structures exercées au laboratoire suive le plus près possible la séance orale en laboratoire? Quelle forme doivent prendre les seances de ré-emploi? Forme de conversation? D'autres exercices structuraux sous forme de questions-réponses, dialogues?

Ces questions se posent au professeur de langue seconde qui utilise le laboratoire de langues; Elles se posent de façon assez pressante, compte tenu du nombre d'étudiants qui laissent le français au cours de leur première année universitaire ou qui décident de ne pas continuer. Elles se posent de façon inquiétante, pour moi, qui voit des étudiants faibles lutter avec une bande magnétique une heure chaque semaine et tenter, de façon désespérée, d'apprendre un système compliqué de sons, de lexique, de syntaxe, bref de la langue. Cela me fait croire, en rapport à l'usage des laboratoires de langues et de l'enseignement traditionnel des langues, que le laboratoire ne peut pas être ajouté de façon artificielle à un enseignement traditionnel. L'adoption d'un laboratoire pose des questions profondes, d'abord sur le but visé par notre enseignement traditionnel et deuxièmement, sur les révisions qu'on dit apporter à cet enseignement si on veut que le laboratoire s'inscrive de façon efficace dans notre enseignement d'une langue seconde.

Je crois qu'aussi longtemps que le français comme langue seconde sera, au niveau universitaire, considéré comme un sujet ne requérant pas plus d'heures que le philosophie, l'histoire ou la géographie, nous n'aurons pas commencé à résoudre le problème posé par l'enseignement efficace de la langue seconde. L'enseignement d'une langue seconde à raison de cinq heures par semaine est-il efficace? Et, comme "corollaire" à cette question, l'étudiant peut-il profiter vraiment d'une heure de laboratoire par semaine?

Autant de questions qui en soulèvent d'autres. . . L'heure du laboratoire de langues (si on doit en rester à une heure seulement), ne serait-elle pas plus efficace si l'étudiant d'une langue seconde était placé dans des conditions où il était exposé à deux ou trois fois plus d'heures d'enseignement en français par semaine? Serait-il souhaitable et possible que tout étudiant anglophone inscrit à un programme de français langue seconde dans une université anglophone canadienne ou autre, soit tenu de suivre au moins un autre cours en français? Est-ce la meilleure solution? Est-ce la seule?

Et, malgré tout, je demeure convaincu que le laboratoire de langues peut jouer un rôle efficace dans l'enseignement des langues. Avant de définir ce rôle avec beaucoup de précision, néanmoins, les questions qui se posent de la façon la plus urgente sont celles-ci: que voulons-nous faire au niveau de la première année universitaire, en français, et deuxièmement, est-il possible d'enseigner le français langue seconde, à n'importe quel niveau, à raison de cinq heures par semaine?

Je crois que le laboratoire de langue joue son rôle le plus efficace dans une situation de cours intensif de langue seconde. Et même là, tout dépend de la préparation au laboratoire par le professeur, de la qualité et de la nature des exercices, et de la phase de ré-emploi. Tout dépend aussi (ce qu'on oublie peut-être trop), de ces autres conditions si importantes à l'apprentissage efficace d'une langue seconde: la motivation intrinsèque de l'étudiant, la motivation qu'aura su créer le professeur, du contexte sociologique et du but poursuivi par l'étudiant dans l'apprentissage d'une langue seconde. Si le but se limite, comme souvent, à l'obtention d'un crédit universitaire, la motivation sera probablement assez faible. Si l'apprentissage de la langue seconde est motivée par de raisons plus profondes, il est presque sûr que le résultat sera meilleur. C'est à l'intérieur de ces questions plus fondamentales, selon moi, que se situe la question de l'emploi efficace du laboratoire de langue pour l'enseignement de la langue au niveau universitaire.

Université du Manitoba
Winnipeg 19
Canada

Hubert Balcaen. "Laboratoire de langues et enseignement traditionnel au niveau universitaire." Résumé.

How useful is a language laboratory in a university setting? Can a second language be taught effectively to students who are taking several other courses at the same time? What should be taught in elementary language classes? Grammar? Literature? Oral skills? No matter what, it is difficult to see how the lab can give much effective help in the traditional university setting. As long as students can devote no more time to French than to other subjects, it probably will not matter what method is used to teach that language: none will work well. Can one hour of lab work per week then really be of any use? Yet could it not be made useful by exposing students to more instruction in their second language, perhaps by requiring those students who have a minimum of training to be taught at least one of their other courses in the second language?

In certain situations the lab can be very effective. To make it such, language teachers ought to decide just what they expect their elementary students to learn and then decide whether that can be accomplished with just five hours of instruction per week. Intensive immersion language classes make good use of the lab through strong student motivation, but if a language is studied only to obtain a few university credits, how can any method produce effective results? JRA

William A. Bennett

The Purposes of a Language Laboratory

and the nature of the facilities provided in the University of Cambridge Language Laboratories

It would generally be agreed that the principal difference between class-teaching and the lecture method is that in the former the teacher is able to adjust his teaching to what he learns from the sample responses he takes from his students. For any student whose response is not evaluated, or for whom no additional information is provided by the teacher when required, there is no alternative but to make do with the rest and hope to borrow someone else's notes. In any case, the teacher's presentation proceeds with little modification during the class. During a supervision, of course, there is far more chance of the teaching being adjusted to the learner's needs but the cost of such a system is high enough to increase the probability of less sensitive teaching situations.

Although a great deal needs to be found out about the process of second language learning certain major differences between learners are recognized in the study of learning in general. Of these it will be sufficient at this point to consider certain of the differences grouped as: learning rate and learning strategy.

If the students in a class are processing information at different rates the teacher's imposition of a given rate of presentation will fail to suit all (or even any). The teacher who is prepared to repeat the information is providing for variation in learning rate, but the problem remains as long as there is a limit on the number of repetitions. In much of the subject-matter of learning the repetition may take the form of paraphrases. For language learning consistent repetition alone is sufficient, for the learner must work on the structure of what is presented to him.

The language laboratory provides for individual learning rates - in much the same way that a library does. It also ensures consistency of presentation which would be beyond the performance of any teachers asked, for example, to represent a particular intonation pattern repeatedly. The language laboratory can also provide the learner with privacy and quiet. There is a close relationship between the way in which provision matches a learner's needs and the attitudes he develops towards the learning over and above his motivation in learning a particular subject. Learners in Cambridge find the freedom of working in language laboratory 1, where facilities are available for individual work using conventional audio-active-comparative equipment, helpful in establishing a study pattern. They may or may not be using the laboratory to complete study assignements, in the way that they might also be using a library.

In somewhat broad terms the differences in the ways in which learners may be said to process information are 'deductive' and 'inductive'. Teaching material which has no general statements about the structure of what is to be learned favours the 'inductive' strategy, as does the inclusion of insufficient statements or, probably, the provision of misleading statements. Traditional courses and audio-lingual courses of the

kind typical of conventional language laboratory use could be faulted on one of these scores. The strength of the best audio-lingual courses lies in the large number of sentences given and the partial adequacy of the (structuralist) grammar implicit in the arrangement of the material.

Information about the structure of sentences can be given for those learners who need it. Grammatical description which is adequate is both complex and abstract. To be effective it must accompany the sentences being described. While work with the spoken language makes use of one of the senses, integral support information may be provided for the 'better' input channel to the learner. A visual programme can be provided by slide, film, writing-screen or videotape to supplement the language laboratory which developed for historical reasons in its conventional 'blind' form.

The use of visual information in pronunciation teaching brings the language laboratory closer to the traditional language classroom. The learner needs information about articulation, both the motor production of sound and the significant features distinguishing each sound from the next. On the other hand, the learner must come to know the significant acoustic features. Physiological and acoustic factors are accompanied by the mnemonic devices used in training phoneticians. The 'labelling' of differences is important to the production of differences. The dynamic activity of articulation, demanding a continuous visual, needs to be superseded by a single frame which can act as the 'label'.

The use of pictures to give information about the extra-linguistic background to the use of sentences and language texts is well-known in the history of teaching. Less attention has been paid to the function of the text itself. Learners need training in 'effective listening', making allowance for the high degree of redundancy in spoken texts. They also need to give close attention to the points of high information in the text, and there is clearly advantage if a 'minimum' text is related to the 'maximum' text. One calls for a continuous visual, while the other requires single sentence related frames.

The material in a language laboratory is for the most part carefully organized and therefore exercises control over the learner's range of responses. The break from there to an open discussion is easily a setback. To bridge this move it is useful to reduce the amount of control from the material while using the equipment to compose and reform groups according to progress. Visual and audio prompts can be given for discussion while pairs of students are linked for conversation (see below).

The Cambridge Language Laboratories

The two thirty-position Shipton (Telefunken) laboratories (known as laboratories 1 and 2) opened in January 1966. One of the functions of the laboratories was to provide language study facilities for members of the University. The degree of specialisation in the existing study of foreign languages and literature in the University was such that there could be no dramatic extension of languages or of the subjects outside literature studied through those languages.

On the other hand, the increase in area studies and a growing realisation of the importance and usefulness of the spoken language in all its varieties brought a demand for more languages and styles of spoken language than those available within the existing framework of the University. To this end, the best available courses have gradually been acquired in all languages of international political, economic or cultural importance. In addition, materials have been introduced in languages for which a request was officially made by a Department or Centre in the University. Material is currently available in some forty languages, this number being added to as more have been asked for, or as suitable courses have been published in languages on a waiting list. Published courses are of varied quality and are for the most part audio-lingual. When courses were not available in languages urgently asked for, the gaps were filled by local production. A course in English for speakers of other languages was written here and served in the absence, at the date of opening, of a satisfactory audio-lingual course. Structural exercises were written in Turkish since no satisfactory course in that language was known to be available. Projects for the writing of courses in Dutch and Italian were started at this time. In neither language was there a complete absence of audio-lingual course material, but the aim of the Italian project, and, after the introductory stage, of the Dutch project, was to produce material suitable to University students and their studies. The Portugese lector wrote and recorded a modified version of a Brazilian Portugese course in our possession. This was a necessary step to fill a gap in Iberian Portugese material.

The use of laboratory 1 ('Private Study' Laboratory) has grown and the number of students who study for some time each year has recently been some 2000. Advice on using the machines and the courses cannot be given to each one individually. Suggestions about using the materials are made in a written document which is distributed with the language laboratory ticket. Introductions on the operation of the machines were originally written out but less trouble in machine operation occurred once these instructions were converted to a simple flow-diagram.

In the laboratory the student may practise his pronunciation, practise listening to long recorded texts or understanding short dialogues and narratives; he may follow grammar exercises, write to dictation, take notes, or translate. A teacher may be content to check on the learning through later discussion or essay. He may prefer to carry out a closer check on learning performance with the object of (a) supplementing the material available for students in the laboratory (b) giving help to particular students during their learning.

An extension to the tape library at the entrance to laboratory 1 in 1969 made it possible to separate the general course material from the 'enrichment' material. The latter consists mainly of unscripted recordings by speakers of a number of languages. They may be speaking about their life, their work, or, indeed, anything about which they know enough to speak without more concern for the <u>way</u> they are speaking than for what they are saying. If the speaker has no objection, information about the speaker's age, home region and education (if relevant to the nature of the language used by the speaker) is made available with the recording. Although primarily to give language learners experience of a range of the styles and registers, as well as of the dialects in the form of which

the language occurs, continuous recordings are also useful for note-taking, dictation and translation practice. This collection of recordings includes a number which deal with subjects in linguistics and in language teaching methodology. These are useful for undergraduates and postgraduate students following courses in or preparing dissertations in theoretical, descriptive or applied linguistics. The introduction (1971) in the Tripos of an undergraduate paper in phonetics has underlined the function of the laboratory in providing practice in phonetic transcription. Suitable materials are being added to the 'enrichment' section. Although material for students of linguistics and phonetics is clearly supplementary to the laboratory's primary role of providing for language learning, the close relationship between the linguistic sciences and the methodology of first and second language teaching is justifiably marked by such an extension of the work of the language laboratories.

Normally in the absence of direct information about all the users of laboratory 1, a census is made for two weeks in the middle of each term. Together with our records of the numbers using the laboratory during the year, the census provides a basis for predicting the future patterns of use. This information is supplemented by forms which users are invited to complete as soon as they are prepared to assess the value to them of the course material on which they are working. Many of the suggestions made in the completion of these forms have been incorporated into the laboratory. Comments on the Dutch and Italian materials, which have been available in draft form, have been of immediate value to the research workers on the course-writing projects. The Assistant Director of Research in Applied Linguistics is available at certain times to provide advice on the use of materials and equipment. The decrease in the numbers seeking advice is clearly the result of improvements in the working of the laboratory as well as being caused by the acceptance of the functions of the laboratory and a shared understanding amongst the laboratory users of how to get the best from its use. The flexibility and informality which has so far been maintained in laboratory 1, has been of importance to the development on two counts. Since no student was obliged to use the laboratory, no particular constraint was imposed on his working method. Given the firm intention of anyone using the laboratory and the experience of optimal learning techniques which must characterize the students who have successfully reached this university, each user could be expected to work in his own best way, guided only by the working conditions and the advice offered to him. From this it followed as a second benefit that information from these working methods could be used in the reorganisation of the laboratory and its materials which was carried out from time to time.

The existence of a 'tradition' of individual use of the material and facilities of laboratory 1 was the basis for an investigation, which began in 1972, into adult second language learning. In the first stage the tools were prepared for collection data about the study habits and experience of individual learners, their motivation in learning a language, their way of using the machines, the nature of their responses (if any), and their success in learning. Part of this work can be done by automatic registering mechanisms, but some depends on the completion by selected laboratory users of fairly extensive questionnaires. It is to be expected that the investigation will eventually result in impro-

tant improvements in machines and material.

That changes in the organisation and materials of the private study laboratory so far carried out have been advantageous to increasingly effective learning is shown by the growing popularity of laboratory 1 amongst members of the University. Problems of accomodating the increasing numbers have not hitherto become critical because it has been possible to spread the load. In the earliest years there were considerable differences between the peaks of use and the rest of the use pattern. The Michaelmas Term (October - December) was a peak time, and so was the first half of the Lent Term (January - March). The demand then fell off considerably as examinations neared. At the end of May, when the examinations were over, there was always another peak. While the overall pattern remains, the differences between peak use and other times is far less remarkable. Already plans are in hand to reduce accommodation pressures by lending out cassette recordings to students.

Staff

The staff associated with the work of the laboratories consists of an Assistant Director of Research in Applied Linguistics, a Laboratory Assistant and a Secretarial Assistant. They are supported by a Technical Officer and two Technical Assistants.

Although no language teaching staff is attached to the language laboratories, an increasingly large number of teaching officers have become associated with particular language teaching activities. Russian, Hungarian, English, Hindi, Portugese, Turkish, Chinese, Danish, Norwegian, are amongst the languages in which material has been added to laboratory 1 through the generosity or collaboration of teaching colleagues. Direct intervention by colleagues in the work of the laboratories is best described within the activities of laboratory 2.

Language Laboratory 2, in addition to the normal language laboratory installation (described earlier), is equiped with closed circuit television. The console is in a control room. The laboratory can be seen through the windows of the control room. Each of the thirty student positions, which face away from the control room, has a small monitor back left on the working top.

Language laboratories developed in an age when the formal relationships of spoken language were stressed. While the earliest laboratories had no space for textbooks, the audio programme was accompanied by visual provision only in the rarest cases. An important advantage stated for the earliest laboratories was that they allowed for individual working. When a projector was introduced into a laboratory the advantage was lost.

The planning of laboratory 2 took into account not only the importance of adding visual material but of providing it directly to each learner. Individual monitors offer the following advantages:

1) the possibility of using the laboratory for more than one class even if that class is working with a visual programme;
2) the reliability, for psychological reasons, of perception within the booth compared with the distractions which may intervene when the visual programme is displayed at a distance from the learner;
3) the closeness of the audio and the video programmes;

4) the ease of the learner's comparison of the visual programme and his own performance (in a mirror positioned in the booth).

Although two visual programmes can be put out to the laboratory at the same time, the drawback remains that a prized advantage of a language laboratory (individualized working) is thereby much reduced. As video tape players become cheaper to buy and to run it will be possible to provide individual booths with such players and thus return to the individualized working pattern of audio-active and audio-active-comparative laboratories. The eventual provision of a videotape recorder for each learner will complete the audio-visual parallel of the fullest audio-active-comparative laboratory at present in use.

Some audio laboratories have been known to provide a slide projector at each student position as a means of presenting the visual programme. It was important to the development of materials in laboratory 2 that the form of the visual programme should not be prejudiced by the presentation means employed. There are six functions which the visual programme can carry out in language teaching.

(1) Principal functions

(a) presentation of writing systems: both single items and continuous texts (e.g. Chinese characters, Arabic vowel marking, effective reading in any language).

(2) Support functions

(a) presentation of notation systems for distinctions within the spoken material for various sizes of units (e.g. phonemic distinctions singly, in words or sentences; syntactic structure in stylistic, register or dialect variation).

(b) notation of developing complexity in texts presented to the learner (e.g. the derivation of complex sentences from simple structures).

(c) cuing of responses (formal, as in 2(a) and semantic, by means of symbol notation or depiction).

(3) Complementary functions

(a) definition of contextual constraints on the use of language: both objective, discrete visuals accompanying single utterances, and continuous visuals sequences for longer, naturalistic utterances.

(b) cuing of commentaries, stimulation of discussion, using both simple, discrete visuals and complex continuous ones.

Materials designed to fulfil these functions can take any of a number of forms and may need to be presented at various speeds in varying sequence formats. Closed circuit television provides a channel to carry this variety.

When the laboratories opened there were two cameras in laboratory 2. One was intended to look at written or drawn captions, the other to transmit in portrait or close-up objects or actors. Experience over the years has led us to increase the number of cameras thus specialising the task each performs. Two cameras, one for close-ups, the other for portraits, are focussed on the teacher at the language laboratory console. At that position he can draw or write on translucent paper on a screen ten by eight inches. This is transmitted, with normal or reversed polarity, by a

camera beneath the right hand wing of the console. Video-tapes, slides and filmstrips can be transmitted. The teacher at the console will be albe to control some of these outputs but it is intended that more ambitious programmes should be planned and video-recorded before being used with a class. Composite programmes resulting from the live use of some of the visual output facilities will be video-recorded and will thus provide a ready programme for use as part of a subsequent teaching programme. The lesson having been recorded it is possible for the teacher to assess its content and its effectiveness for the teaching purposes for which it was intended. If satisfactory, the recording can supplement future reading, if not entirely satisfactory the lesson can be critically reviewed and the recording can be edited as necessary. Eventually, the best possible programmes, thus obtained, can be added to the materials in laboratory 1. At that stage the content of the recording will be transferred to a more permanent and durable medium. The device which will ultimately be used in an audio-visual version of laboratory 1 is not yet certain, but the fundamental operations which a presentation system must adequately undertake have become clear through the work in laboratory 2, namely: it must have the capacity to present an hour-long continuous programme; it must be able to present sequences of single pictures which represent stages within the succeeding or preceding continuous visual; it must be calibrated accurately so that a quick reference (preferably automatic) is possible to any point within the continuous programme. Whether the audio programme should be physically connected to the video or merely synchronised is a technical question which is not involved in the methodological considerations which guide technological developments.

The work in language laboratory 2 combines teching with research and development. In the early years use of the language laboratory was not an obligatory part of any course and this is still largely true today. The result has been that the increased use by teachers of the languages laboratory has depended on our providing the necessary facilities and on the use being seen to be effective. Lack of prejudiced support for language laboratories has been accompanied by a healthy absence of prejudement as to what laboratories could or couldn't do. Many of the developments in the use of visual programmes referred to earlier have been brought about by demands on the facilities which stretched the laboratory to its fullest extent. The earliest attempt to link student positions so that the teacher could group them for consideration as necessary resulted in a considerable amount of wiring between student positions. The language laboratory had not been considered as a dynamic conversation room until the request was made by a teacher not bound by conventional thinking about what a language laboratory could do. The wiring has now been built in and the teacher will find the linking of students much simpler. As mentioned above, the teacher often notices the gap between the controlled learning situation of a lesson of exercises and the freer atmosphere of the conversation lesson. The increased intensity and consistency of work in the language laboratory has made the contrast more dramatic. The laboratory wired for multivariable communication grouping can help the teacher to move the class into the minimally controlled conversation session while ensuring control through the use of group dynamics in the communication configurations which the teacher forms.

Similar extensions of the facilities of laboratory 2 have been occasioned by investigation into particular areas of learning. Among these have been: the study of foreign language reading speed in various conditions (e.g. spoken text accompaniment of pitch and timing); the evaluation of ability to form complex sentences in a foreign language when structural information of various kinds was supplied; measures of competence in a foreign language through various short critical tests as a subsitute for conventional, time-consuming examining techniques.

Wm. A. Bennett
ADR in Applied Linguistics
Department of Linguistics
University of Cambridge

Åke Andersson

Teacher Training - a "Must" in the Language Laboratory Field

The interest Swedish schools have shown in language laboratories has always been rather high. As early as 1964 the National Board of Education started experimental activities, involving 10 comprehensive schools and 10 upper secondary schools. The main aims of this five-year/experimentation were

- to develop models for language laboratory programmes
- to develop forms of integration between classroom activities and laboratory practice
- to devise a suitable role for the teacher in the language laboratory
- to collect technical experience concerning the equipment.

I cannot go into detail concerning the results, which are to be found in a special final report, published 1970. Both the teachers and the pupils taking part in the experiment felt that their experiences of the language laboratory had been positive. These positive experiences have left their mark on the policy of the National Board of Education. The new curricula recommend the inclusion of language laboratory exercises in teaching. Furthermore, all schools of education have been equipped with language laboratories. Instructions have been issued concerning government grants for the installation of language laboratories in individual schools. At present more than 50% of the secondary schools have been equipped with language laboratories (full-class AAC-labs). The National Board of Education has also informed educational publishers to ensure that language lab programmes are produced and that this production includes both special language laboratory programmes (independent) and programmes integrated with other teaching materials (for the students concerned).

During the last few years some criticism has been heard that teachers do not use the language laboratory as much as had been expected. Other AV-aids have been exposed to the same sort of complaints. According to an investigation made by a Scandinavian working-party for AV-aids in 1970 the results were the following:

Sweden: Average No. of lessons in the LL per school/week

comprehensive schools	upper secondary schools	teacher training
25	22	18

It is difficult to establish a definite rate of utilization.
What is known is that the labs are used very unequally in the schools.

Reasons

To my mind there are three reasons why the labs are not used:

1. Teachers do not have adequate information about how the lab can be integrated into ordinary teaching and how they should use the aid.

2. The school board has not bought a sufficient quantity of the lab programmes available.
3. The equipment is bad or servicing and maintenance is deficient.

Technically speaking the equipment should not present any difficulties if the teachers are properly informed. What they need primarily is not a technical, theoretical introduction. The technical information initially supplied by the dealer or manufacturer is generally inadequate, so that a follow-up is called for. The only effective solution here is for each teacher to practise in the language laboratory (without pupils present). Most teachers can master the equipment in less than two hours.

But most of the information provided should be of a methodological nature. The language laboratory is only one aid among many. Like other aids it has a particular sector where it works best. The thing is to know when the lab it to be used and how it is to be used. Information must be provided concerning the types of exercises and other learning activities which are suitable for the language laboratory. The teacher must also know what subject matter he is to select for study in the language laboratory, how the exercise is to be arranged, what part he is to play when using the equipment, how to prepare the language laboratory exercise and how to follow it up. This information cannot be given all at once. Instead it must be spread out over several different occasions. It should cover the following points:

1. Technical introduction (in brief) and practice in the use of the equipment.
2. Listening to different types of programmes (purchased from educational publishers). Discussions of the programmes (group work).
3. How to make a language laboratory programme.
4. How to integrate the language laboratory programme with ordinary classroom material.
5. Ad-hoc-programming - see below.
6. The role of the teacher in the language laboratory.

Many schools have put one language teacher in charge of the language laboratory equipment. This teacher has then been responsible for training his colleagues and also for the purchase of ready-made programmes and the production of local ones.

Ad hoc-programming

Often the teacher does not have a ready-made programme that fits in properly with the subject matter he is at present dealing with. The textbook he is using is perhaps not provided with language lab programmes. Or there is no follow-up material for the radio broadcast they are going to listen to in class. Experience has shown that many teachers with access to a language lab often make up their own programmes and record them, often straight from the teacher's microphone. Of course, ad hoc-programming - as the procedure has been called - presents a few disadvantages compared with material specially produced for the language lab. But the advantages it offers are still so considerable that this type of programming must be recommended to any teacher. Perhaps a definition is called for. By ad-hoc

programming I understand the following:

1. The teacher modifies certain parts of the regular teaching material slightly so that it can be used in the lab. Starting with the regular textbook, practice book or classroom tape, the teacher records questions and other tasks, leaves gaps to enable the students to answer and also records the right answers.
2. The ad hoc-programme is made by a teacher who lacks suitable material for the language lab at a particular moment. Often the product is of a somewhat provisional character.
3. As a rule the ad hoc-programme is produced straight from the teacher's microphone, while the students are sitting in their booths. The pupils play an active part in the programme from the very beginning.

Ad-hoc-programming offers the following advantages:

1. Excellent integration of classroom activities and laboratory practice.
2. The language laboratory can be used by all the teachers. None of them can plead lack of suitable programmes.
3. Ad hoc-programming is the best way of learning how to use the lab. The teacher soon gets the knack of planning a laboratory programme and using it.

Åke Andersson
Bastuhagsv. 8
S-122 42 ENSKEDE
Sweden

Åke Andersson

Educational consultant at The National Board of Education, Bureau of Research and Development (1964-1972). Project leader of the Language Laboratory Research Project in Sweden 1964-1969, chairman of the Scandinavian working-party "Audio-visual aids in Scandinavian Schools". For publications on the LL see Bibliography.

Sprachlaborprogramme im Gruppenunterricht

Die bedauerlichste Fehlentwicklung im Bereich des Sprachlabors ist möglicherweise darin zu sehen, dass in der Schulpraxis Sprachlaborprogramme als Medien betrachtet werden, die nur im Sprachlabor eingesetzt werden sollen.

Dieser naheliegende Denkfehler hat zur Folge:

1. Meist werden nur dann Laborprogramme angeschafft oder die Mittel hierfür bewilligt, wenn ein Sprachlabor zur Verfügung steht.

2. Auch wenn kein Labor zur Verfügung steht, ist die Arbeit mit einem Tonträger und den Laborprogrammen im Klassenraum eher die Ausnahme als die Regel. Es scheint sogar so zu sein, dass man in der BRD mehr Schulen mit Sprachlabor findet als solche, in denen der Fremdsprachenunterricht mit regelmässigem Einsatz eines Tonträgers durchgeführt wird.

3. Auch wenn Labors zur Verfügung stehen, wird meist nicht mit Hilfe des Tonträgers im Klassenraum für didaktisch sinnvolle vorbereitende Integrierung der Sprachlaborarbeit gesorgt.

4. In manchen Schulen werden Sprachlabors eingerichtet, ohne dass vorher dafür gesorgt wurde, dass jeder Raum, in dem Fremdsprachenunterricht gegeben wird, mit einem festinstallierten Tonträger und einem starken Lautsprecher versehen ist. Dem heutigen Stand entsprechend müssten solche 'Sprachlehrräume' mindestens mit einem Medientisch, in dem Tonträger, Diaprojektor und Tageslichtschreiber (overhead-projector) enthalten sind, ausgerüstet sein.

Die oben aufgezeigte Entwicklung ist umso bedauerlicher, als im Bereich des Sprachlabors technische Weiterentwicklungen meist nicht von besonderer didaktischer Relevanz waren, während bei der Entwicklung von Sprachlabormaterialien folgende entscheidende Fortschritte gemacht wurden:

Situationsentsprechender Aufbau
Kommunikationsrelevante Lexis
Verbindung mit visuellem Material
Motivierender Inhalt
Schriftliche Zusatzmaterialien für den Schüler
Unterrichtswerke, die eine prae- und postlaborale Integrierung vorsehen

Diese Vorteile machen die Forderung nach der regelmässigen Arbeit mit dem Tonträger im Klassenraum zu einer conditio sine qua non.

Sie wird noch dadurch gestützt, dass das Sprachlabor in der jetzigen For nicht die Erwartung erfüllt hat, die man in es gesetzt hatte.[1] In einig Schulen hat das Labor eine Art Alibifunktion für 'modernen Fremdsprachen unterricht'. Es wird wenig genutzt und vor allem wird der sonstige Fremd

sprachenunterricht unbeeinflusst von 'soft- oder hardware' so weitergeführt wie vor der Existenz des Labors. In anderen Schulen, in denen das einzige Sprachlabor mit durchschnittlich 25 Plätzen und einer Besuchsfrequenz von ein bis zwei Wochenstunden von vielen Klassen besucht wird, führt dies oft zu beträchtlichen Schwierigkeiten in der organisatorischen Integrierung, die bei der Verwendung eines festinstallierten Tonbandgerätes in jedem Klassenraum oder bei der Ausrüstung eines jeden Sprachlehrraumes als HS-oder sogar als HSA-Labor nicht auftreten.

Bei allen drei Versionen ist es möglich, nach Bedarf in jeder Stunde während kurzer Lernphasen die Laborübungen:

zur Einübung (gegebenenfalls zur Induktion der Regel und der Bildung von kognitiven Halten)

zur Festigung (in variierenden Übungen)

zur Wiederholung (nach dem Gesetz vom geometrischen Zuwachs der Behaltenszeit[2])

einzusetzen.

Nachdem aufgezeigt wurde, in welcher Form die Sprachlaborübungen am ehesten in den Fremdsprachenunterricht integriert werden können, soll nach der Art des Tonträgers gefragt werden. Diese Frage ist zwar sekundärer Art, weil es vor allem auf die Laborübungen selbst ankommt, die mit jedem Tonträger, ja sogar ohne diesen, nutzbringend angewandt werden können. Für die Durchsetzung und den Erfolg in der Praxis ist aber die Art 'hardware' oft entscheidend. Sie soll folgenden Anforderungen genügen:

1) störunanfällig sein
2) leicht zu bedienen
3) preisgünstig
4) kompatibel mit den Geräten in Schülerbesitz
5) flexibel im Unterrichtseinsatz

Der Cassettenrecorder bzw. das Cassetten-Sprachlabor erfüllt diese Anforderungen, wenn auch die Störanfälligkeit im Augenblick noch zu bemängeln ist.

Die leichte Bedienung ist beim Recorder durch die Cassette eher gegeben als beim Tonbandgerät. Manche Cassetten-Labors haben nur noch zwei Bedienungsknöpfe für den Schüler: Rücklauf und Aufnahme.

Die Cassettenrecorder sind erheblich billiger als die Tonbandgeräte. In geringerem Umfang trifft dies auch für die Labors zu.

Ein besonderer Vorteil ist darin zu sehen, dass die Mehrzahl der Schüler schon jetzt im Besitz eines Cassetten-Recorders ist. (Eine Befragung einer kleinen Stichprobe von 750 Gymnasiasten und Realschülern ergab, dass 73% im Besitz eines Recorders sind) Die Schüler können die im Cassetten-Labor überspielten Bänder zum Üben nach Hause mitnehmen.

Einer der wichtigsten Vorteile ist der der Flexibilität im Unterrichtseinsatz. Sie ist durch die Cassette, die Unabhängigkeit vom Stromnetz

und das geringe Gewicht beim Recorder eher gegeben als beim Tonbandgerät.

Dies hängt natürlich davon ab, dass ein flexibler Unterricht überhaupt als Notwendigkeit erkannt wird. Hiermit ist der Wechsel zwischen einem lehrerzentrierten und ausschliesslich mediengesteuerten Unterricht und einem schülerzentrierten gemeint, bei dem die Schüler sich teils der Medien bedienen, teils ohne diese arbeiten.

In dem schülerzentrierten Unterricht arbeiten die Schüler mit den Laborübungen in Gruppen von 2 - 6 Schülern. Die Gruppenarbeit kann entweder durch die Laborübungen genau gelenkt werden oder in freier Form gestaltet werden, indem die Laborübungen nur als Voraussetzung und Anregung dienen.

Formen der gelenkten Gruppenarbeit:

Die einfachste Form der unterrichtlichen Auswertung von Laborübungen ist die folgende: Die Schüler arbeiten mit den schriftlich fixierten Laborübungen, wobei jeweils nur der fragende Schüler das Textbuch erhält. Er korrigiert anhand dieser Unterlage den antwortenden Mitschüler. Nach einem bestimmten Zeitraum werden die Rollen gewechselt. Die Zweiergruppe, also das Tandem- oder partnerschaftliche Üben, eignet sich hierfür besonders. Zuhörer sind bei dieser Form des Arbeitens zuerst etwas verwirrt durch den Stimmenwirrwar - sonst ein Zeichen einer 'undisziplinierten Klasse'. Sie bemerken aber nach kurzer Zeit, mit welcher Konzentration die einzelnen Schüler arbeiten. Diese Arbeitsform kann auch bei sehr grossen Klassen durchgeführt werden, wenn nur die für die Partnerkommunikation nötige Lautstärke eingehalten wird. Selbstverständlich ist ein wesentlicher Vorteil der Laborübungen, der native-speaker bei dieser Übung nicht gegeben. Deshalb kann, falls die Klasse nicht über 25 Schüler stark ist, der Cassettenrecorder eingesetzt werden. Hierzu werden Gruppen von 3 - 5 Schülern gebildet, die jeweils mit einem Recorder arbeiten. In die Pausen, zumindest in die zweite (also Phase 4, die Wiederholung der Lehrerkorrektur durch den Schüler), können mehrere Schüler hintereinander antworten, so dass bei jedem Übungsschritt fast alle Schüler beteiligt sind. Die Schüler verbessern sich gegenseitig und bedienen das Gerät gemäss ihrer Lerngeschwindigkeit. Falls von sämtlichen Laborübungen einmal eine entsprechende Anzahl von Kopien gezogen wurde, ist die einzige organisatorische Schwierigkeit dieses Vorschlags behoben.

Formen der freien Gruppenarbeit:

Nach der Einübungsphase gehen Gruppen von den Laborübungen aus und bilden im Wechsel neue Übungsschritte, die sie in Form von Frage und Antwort sich untereinander stellen.

Die Gruppenmitglieder zeichnen visuelle Stimuli, die dem Mitschüler als Anhaltspunkte zur Variation der Übung dienen. In derselben Weise können vorhandene Hafttafelelemente verwendet werden, die vollständig an Hafttafeln allen Schülern zur Verfügung stehen und gleichzeitig als 'visuelles Glossar' zur Anregung und Gedächtnisstütze dienen.

Die Schüler schreiben nach dem Modell der Laborübungen neue Variationen der Struktur als Frage auf, geben sie einem Partner, der die Antwort hinschreibt, gegebenenfalls mit Hilfe seiner Nachbarn, und dann die Frage des schriftlich gefundenen Übungsschrittes mündlich an einen Gruppenpartner stellt. Indem alle Gruppenmitglieder so gleichzeitig schriftlich Fragen stellen, dann ihren jeweiligen Nachbarn das Blatt wortlos zur Beantwortung weiterreichen und so fort, entstehen mehrere Übungsreihen gleichzeitig. Vorteilhaft ist, dass sie nachher gemeinsam korrigiert werden können, wobei der Lehrer eher seine Rolle als zusätzlicher Korrektor wahrnehmen kann als bei mündlichen Gruppenarbeiten.

Schliesslich werden die besten Übungen auf Cassettenrecorder aufgenommen und unter den Gruppen ausgetauscht, die sofort anschliessend oder zu einem späteren Zeitpunkt damit üben. In derselben Weise kann jeder Gruppe die Aufgabe gegeben werden, mündlich eine neue Strukturübung nach dem Modell der betreffenden Laborübung zu finden und sie sofort auf den Cassettenrecorder zu sprechen.

Die zuerst angeführten Beispiele erwecken sicherlich den Anschein, als ob es hier um praktikable Notlösungen ginge, die dann angebracht sind, wenn kein Sprachlabor vorhanden ist. Dies ist tatsächlich auch das wesentliche Ziel dieser Vorschläge. Aus den zuletzt genannten Beispielen ist aber ersichtlich, dass es ausserdem um Vorschläge geht, die durchaus auch dann realisiert werden sollten, wenn ein Sprachlabor vorhanden ist und auch tatsächlich eingesetzt wird.

Den entscheidenden Vorteil des Sprachlabors sah man bisher in dem individuellen Lernen nach eigener Lerngeschwindigkeit. Solange aber der übrige Unterricht nicht darauf abgestimmt ist und in letzter Konsequenz die Jahrgangsklasse nicht aufgelöst wird, kommt dieser Vorteil kaum zum Zuge. Allenfalls bekommt der Schnell-lernende ein Sonderprogramm vom Lehrer zugespielt. Was soll aber der Langsamlernende tun, wenn die Stunde zu Ende ist, obwohl er das Programm immer noch nicht beherrscht?

Minderleistungen und Aggressionen - letzteres sogar auf Band nachweisbar -, die sich bei einigen Schülern nach längerem Sprachlaborbesuch zeigen, sind psychologisch noch nicht auf ihre Ursachen hin untersucht. Möglicherweise ist gerade die Absonderung von der Lerngruppe, die Vereinzelung, in diesen Fällen ein motivationshemmendes Moment. Die sprachlich selbständige Tätigkeit im Labor ist sicherlich ein Vorteil. Sie ist aber in einer Kleingruppe ebenfalls gegeben. Hier kommt noch die Anerkennung der guten Leistung vor den anderen hinzu. Die Furcht vor Versagen wird durch die kleine Gruppe und die Abwesenheit des Lehrers gemindert. Der Lehrer kann sich nicht mehr - wie im Labor - als heimliche Kontrollinstanz einschalten, sondern wird vielmehr als Helfer von der Gruppe gerufen, wenn seine Hilfe gewünscht wird.

Die Korrektur durch einen Mitschüler kann manchmal wirksamer sein als die durch den Lehrer. Auf jeden Fall hat sie weniger negative Auswirkungen, als wenn sie vor der gesamten Klasse erfolgt.

Bei der Arbeit in der Gruppe spielt das Gruppenintegrationsmotiv für die Lernleistung in vielen Fällen eine entscheidende Rolle: Der Schüler erreicht Gruppenzugehörigkeit, wenn er mit der Lernleistung seiner Gruppe Schritt halten kann. "'Inter-group communication' muss - auch aus sprachimmanenten Gründen - als methodisches Prinzip im Fremdsprachenunterricht

verankert werden. Der Schüler muss aus psychologischen und linguistischen Gründen lernen, Sprache als Kommunikationsmedium und als soziales, pragmatisches Phänomen (im Sinne der Pragmatik!) zu sehen und zu verstehen."[3]

Über eine Leistungssteigerung durch solche Unterrichtsformen - möglicherweise im Vergleich zum Sprachlabor - lassen sich sicherlich nur Vermutungen anstellen. Empirische Untersuchungen ausserhalb des Fremdsprachenunterrichts haben die Wirksamkeit des Gruppenunterrichts in vielen Fällen nachweisen können[4], was selbstverständlich nur den Versuch rechtfertigt, diese Frage auch im Fremdsprachenunterricht zu überprüfen.

Letzten Endes kommt es aber bei der Gruppenarbeit nicht nur auf die Leistungssteigerung an, sondern vielmehr darauf, dass die Schüler lernen, sich selbst zu unterrichten, indem sie gleichzeitig anderen helfen und von ihnen Hilfe akzeptieren.

Anmerkungen

1) Vgl. die kritischen Stimmen in folgenden Beiträgen: Bemmerlein, A., Warum mehrere Sprachlabors an einer Schule? In: Praxis des neusprachlichen Unterrichts, 1/1973, Seite 96-97.
Freudenstein, R., Sprachlaborarbeit - Wie geht's weiter? In: Praxis des neusprachlichen Unterrichts, 2/1973, Seite 115-120.

2) Lado, R., Moderner Sprachunterricht, München 1967, Seite 73.

3) Zimmermann, G., Personale Faktoren und Fremdsprachencurriculum, in: Praxis des neusprachlichen Unterrichts, 1/1973, Seite 6.

4) Vgl. Correll, W., Lernsychologie, Donauwörth 1965, Seite 85 ff.
Meyer, E. (Hg.), Die Gruppe im Lehr- und Lernprozess, Frankfurt/Main 19
hierin insbesondere: Dietrich, G., Der Einfluss der Unterrichtsform auf Leistung und Leistungspersönlichkeit des Volksschulkindes, Seite 75-92.

Pädagogische Hochschule
1000 Berlin 46
Malteserstr. 74-100

Abstract

Language laboratory programmes have most regrettably come to be regarded as media solely for laboratory use, and the potentialities of the audio-visually equipped classroom have been widely neglected. Furthermore, progress in materials development has had much greater didactic relevance than technical advances in laboratory equipment. The language laboratory has in many schools merely provided an alibi of modernity, while teaching methods have continued unchanged. Timetabling problems are avoided and consequently integration of taped materials with other teaching facilitated if each language classroom is equipped with at least a properly installed tape-recorder, allowing short training sessions to be interposed at will. The type of recorder used is of secondary importance, but the cassette recorder or cassette laboratory has many advantages, being cheap, easy to operate, very flexible, light in weight, and independent of power circuit. Also most pupils already own cassette recorders - 73% of a sample of 750 secondary school students - and can take home practice tapes recorded at school. The alternation of teacher-centred and learner-centred instruction, the latter especially in groups of 2-6 pupils, is thus simplified. Types of group work possible with minimum equipment are described. The small group also has psychological advantages over individual laboratory work and encourages communication, which is the purpose of language instruction. NFD

Fernstudium Englisch: Objektivierung und Individualisierung im Bereich Sprachpraxis

1. Ausgangssituation

Seit einigen Jahren wird in allen Bundesländern Englischunterricht auch an Hauptschulen erteilt. Diese schulpolitische Entwicklung hatte zur Folge, dass Hauptschullehrer Englischunterricht übernehmen mussten, obwohl weder der Erwerb einer angemessenen Sprechfertigkeit noch die Didaktik und Methodik des Englischunterrichts zu ihrer pädagogischen Ausbildung - von sehr wenigen Ausnahmen abgesehen - gehört hatte.

Um möglichst schnell vielen Lehrern die notwendigen Fertigkeiten und theoretischen Kenntnisse zu vermitteln, wurde das DEUTSCHE INSTITUT FÜR FERNSTUDIEN AN DER UNIVERSITÄT TÜBINGEN (DIFF) im Jahren 1966 mit der Entwicklung eines "Fernstudienlehrgangs für Englischlehrer an Haupt- und Realschulen" beauftragt. In der Zeit vom Mai 1968 bis Dezember 1972 führte das DIFF diesen Fernstudienlehrgang für die o.a. Adressatengruppe durch. Als Fernstudienlehrgang gab diese Art der Fortbildung den Englischlehrern die Möglichkeit, neben ihrer Unterrichtsarbeit zu studieren, ohne an längeren, zeitaufwendigen Fortbildungskursen teilnehmen zu müssen.

Dieses Verfahren hat folgende Vorteile:

a) Angesichts des überall herrschenden Lehrermangels ist es besonders wichtig, dass Englischlehrer nicht über einen längeren Zeitraum im Unterricht ausfallen.

b) Eine wesentlich grössere Zahl von Englischlehrern kann gegenüber den bisher üblichen Direktveranstaltungen innerhalb der Lehrerfortbildung an dem Fernstudium teilnehmen.

Die Voraussetzungen für die Teilnahme waren:

- Mindestens Abiturkenntnisse in Englisch, da der Fernstudienlehrgang ein hohes Niveau hatte
- Die Adressaten sollten möglichst die 2. Dienstprüfung abgeschlossen und ausreichende Unterrichtserfahrung haben. Die Auswahl der Teilnehmer an dem Fernstudienlehrgang geschah ausschliesslich nach organisatorischen Prinzipien der betreffenden Oberschulämter (z.B. Vertretungsmöglichkeit des freizustellenden Lehrers etc.). Durch dieses Verfahren ergab sich eine äusserst grosse Heterogenität der Teilnehmergruppen.
  Eine der grössten didaktischer Schwierigkeiten während des Fernstudienlehrgangs bestand darin, durch differenziertes Unterrichtsmaterial den verschiedenen Leistungsstand der Adressaten zu berücksichtigen. Lösungsmöglichkeiten zu diesem Problem werden unten, wo die revidierte Version des Fernstudienlehrgangs erläutert wird, dargestellt werden.

Der Lehrgang bestand aus Phasen des Direkt- und Fernstudiums.
Er gliederte sich in

Die Dauer des Gesamtlehrgangs betrug ca. 2 Jahre.
Zu a)
Ziel des Sprechfertigkeitskurses war ein angemessener Erwerb von Kenntnissen und Fertigkeiten im Bereich der gesprochenen Sprache (Umgangssprache). Durch diesen Teil des Lehrgangs sollte der Adressat befähigt werden, die für einen modernen, zum grossen Teil einsprachigen Englischunterricht notwendigen sprachlichen Voraussetzungen zu schaffen.

Der Kurs umfasste die folgenden drei eng miteinander verbundenen Teile:

a) Er begann mit einem 10-tägigen Intensivkurs im Sprachlabor (Anfangsseminar), zu dem der teilnehmende Lehrer vom zuständigen Oberschulamt eingeladen wurde. Die Direktseminare fanden an der Staatlichen Akademie Comburg/Schwäbisch Hall statt.

b) Er wurde fortgesetzt durch eine Tonbandkorrespondenz von insgesamt 20 Lektionen. Diese Phase nahm 40 Wochen in Anspruch.

c) Er schloss mit einem 5-tägigen Endseminar ab, zu dem der Teilnehmer wiederum von der zuständigen Schulbehörde freigestellt wurde.

Der Sprechfertigkeitskurs umfasste Lehr- und Lernmaterial in folgenden sprachlichen Bereichen:

Phonetik
Intonation
Grammatik der Umgangssprache
Vokabular der Umgangssprache.

Während der Tonbandkorrespondenz erhielten die Teilnehmer leihweise vom DIFF einen Sprachstudienrecorder mit Kopfhörerkombination. Die Arbeitstechnik war den Teilnehmern von der Sprachlaborarbeit des Anfangsseminars her bekannt. In 14-tägigem Abstand erhielten sie Tonband-Cassetten für eine Lektion zugeschickt. Die Teilnehmer schickten die von ihnen bearbeiteten Cassetten innerhalb von 14 Tagen zurück, damit diese von "native speakers" in einem ebenfalls vom DIFF besonders entwickelten Korrekturverfahren korrigiert werden konnten. Bei diesem Verfahren wurden Lehrer- und Teilnehmertext an den zu korrigierenden Stellen auf eine Korrektur-Cassette kopiert, damit der Teilnehmer beides noch einmal abhören konnte. Dann sprach der Korrektor seine Information für den Teilnehmer ebenfalls auf die Korrektur-Cassette. Der Teilnehmer erhielt diese Cassette und schickte sie nach dem Abhören wieder an das Institut zurück.

Das Schlussseminar bezog nur in begrenztem Umfang Sprachlaborarbeit ein. Die Teilnehmer sollten jetzt, nach einer intensiven Ausbildung im Bereich der gebundenen Sprechfertigkeit, zum freien Sprechen geführt werden. Gegenstand dieses Seminars waren Themen zur Landeskunde, der Literatur (20. Jahrhundert) und aktuelle Tagesprobleme. In das Lehr- und Lernverfahren wurden audiovisuelle Unterrichtsmedien (u.a. Film, Dia, Videobänder) einbezogen. Die Arbeit in Gross- und Kleingruppen bot vielseitige Möglichkeiten zu Diskussionen und Konversation. Dazu kamen Debates und Play-Reading. In Verbindung mit den literarischen Themen wurden Interpretationshinweise gegeben.

Zu b)
Der Studienbriefteil befasste sich mit der "Didaktik und Methodik des Englischunterrichts an Hauptschulen". Sein Ziel war, mit fachwissenschaftlichen und didaktisch-methodischen Problemen vertraut zu machen,

die möglichen Unterrichtsziele zu erörtern und auf diese Weise praktische Unterrichtshilfen anzubieten. Die Studienbriefe (20-40 Druckseiten) wurden im Abstand von 3 Wochen verschickt und sollten im gleichen Zeitraum von den Teilnehmern bearbeitet werden.

2. Sprachpraktische Neukonzeption

Vorarbeiten

Während der Durchführung der Kurse wurde nach dem Modell einer formativen Evaluation des Lehrmaterials die Grundlage für eine Neukonzeption geschaffen. Wir bezogen uns dabei auf unsere umfassenden Fehleranalysen und Adressatenbefragungen. Diese Neukonzeption, in welche ausserdem unsere vierjährige Erfahrung mit dem gesamten Material einging, wurde ausserdem ausgerichtet an

- Sachverständigengutachten, die verschiedene Bundesländer in dem Bereich der Lehrerausbildung angefertigt haben
- den Ergebnissen einer Befragung von Vertretern Pädagogischer Hochschulen und Kultusministerien
- den Rahmenrichtlinien der Bundesländer für Lehrer der Sekundarstufe I. Neue Entwürfe von Studienordnungen wurden in die Überlegungen mit einbezogen.

Dies bedeutete bei der Neukonzeption von Unterrichtsmaterial die Berücksichtigung einer Reihe von Forderungen, sowohl im didaktisch-methodischen als auch im technisch-organisatorischen Bereich, so z.B. die Umstrukturierung des Lehrmaterials von einem Kurs- in ein Blocksystem einerseits, von Lehrmaterial, welches zum Teil für den Einsatz in Direktseminaren konzipiert war, zu fernstudieneinheiten andererseits.

Das nach dieser Neukonzeption zu entwickelnde Lehr- und Lernmaterial setzt sich im Sinne eines Baukastensystems aus einzelnen Studienblöcken zusammen, die thematisch relativ abgeschlossen sind. Eine Strukturierung des Lehrmaterials nach dem Baukastensystem hat folgende Vorteile:

- Variable Einsetzbarkeit der Einheiten innerhalb verschiedener Studiengänge und -abschnitte (Kontaktstudium, Fort- und Weiterbildung der Lehrer, Erststudium)
- Möglichkeit zur Verknüpfung mit anderen Lehrmaterialien zu einem umfassenden Lehr- und Lernsystem
- Möglichkeit des Einsetzens einzelner Studieneinheiten im Sinne einer ständigen Revision
- Einsetzbarkeit einzelner Einheiten im Direktstudium.

Wesentliche Teile des vorliegenden, oben erwähnten Lehrmaterials erfüllen die Forderungen der neueren Sprachlehrforschung nicht.
Das bedeutet im einzelnen:

1. Das Material wurde offensichtlich nicht durchgängig auf der Basis einer Analyse der Sprechleistung der Zielgruppe erstellt.

2. Der integrative Bezug der Bereiche Phonetik, Intonation, Grammatik, Vokabular wurde nicht realisiert.

3. Das Material enthält nicht genügend Möglichkeiten, erworbenes Redematerial in äquivalenten Situationen mit dem Ziel eines gezielten Transfer-Unterrichts zu aktualisieren. Dies betrifft unter anderem auch die mangelhafte Integration von schrift-

lichem Begleitmaterial in das Tonbandmaterial.

4. Das Material bietet nur in begrenztem Umfang Möglichkeiten der Eigen- und Fremdkontrolle. Dadurch ist z.B. keine Grundlage für Lernzielkontrolle und eine gezielte Differenzierung gegeben.
5. Das Begleitmaterial ist nicht klar gegliedert. Es fehlen wichtige Verständnis- und Orientierungshilfen wie z.B. Marginalien, Quer- und Rückverweise und Arbeitshilfen.
6. Eine über den gesamten Kurs sich erstreckende Schwierigkeitsprogression ist nicht erkennbar.

nhalt

ie Neukonzeption des Materials erfasst folgende sprachliche Bereiche:

- Phonetik
- Intonation
- Grammatik
- Vokabular

as Material muss nicht nur o.a. Nachteile vermeiden, sondern nach folenden Kriterien ausgerichtet sein.

honetik

1. Eine theoretische und praktische Einführung in die Grundlagen der Lautbildungslehre ist notwendig.
2. Der Teilnehmer muss eine Einführung in die phonetische Umschrift erhalten.
3. Die Übungen dürfen kein ungebräuchliches Vokabular oder sog. "nonsense words" enthalten.
4. Das Material muss Übungsmöglichkeiten zum "ear-training" enthalten. Dies bedeutet u.a. für die Diskriminationsübungen, dass es sich nicht nur um eine lose Aneinanderreihung von isolierten Wörtern handeln darf, sondern dass Möglichkeiten bereitgestellt werden müssen, in denen die Laute in verschiedener Lautumgebung und besonders ausgewählten Sinneinheiten geübt werden können.
5. Da es sich um den Bereich des "Colloquial English" handelt, ist besonderer Wert auf die Übung der "contractions", "weak forms" und "linkings" zu legen.

ntonation

1. Die Auswahl und Anordnung der "intonation patterns" muss nach den Kriterien ihrer
   - Frequenz im umgangssprachlichen Bereich
   - Komplexität
   - Interferenz im muttersprachlichen Bereich

   erfolgen (Maier 1972).
2. Das Übungsmaterial darf nicht nur in Form von Nachsprechübungen angeboten werden.
3. Das Material muss genügend Übungsmöglichkeiten in den Bereichen "discrimination" und"articulation" enthalten.

4. Dem Material sollte nicht eine Klassifikation nach einzelnen "tones", sondern das Prinzip der Zuordnung einer bestimmten "speaker's attitude" zu einem bestimmten "tone" zugrunde liegen. Nur so können adäquate Lernanlässe im Bereich der Sprachproduktion ("production") geschaffen werden.
5. Die Bereiche "primary stress", "secondary stress", "sentence stress" müssen ebenfalls erfasst werden.

Grammatik

Eine Reihe der o.a. Kriterien muss auch in diesem Bereich erfüllt werden.

1. Handelt es sich um Transformationsübungen im Bereich grammatischer Strukturen, so müssen diese hinsichtlich Art und Zahl genau bestimmt sein.
2. Vergleichbar mit dem Bereich "production" in der Intonation muss auch hier die Dialogsituation der Übungen Steuerungsfunktion übernehmen.
3. Im Bereich dieser Transformationsübungen muss die Sequenz der "frames" situationskonform und schlüssig sein.

Vokabular

1. Das Material muss ebenfalls auf der Grundlage von Fehlerfrequenzlisten erstellt werden.
2. Die Aufbereitung muss nach Wortfeldern und Kollokationen erfolgen.
3. Eine laufende Aktivierung des Vokabulars muss gewährleistet sein.

Die Neukonzeption des Blocksystems sieht vor, dass der Teilnehmer - wenn die Voraussetzungen gegeben sind - möglichst früh in einen für seine besonderen Bedürfnisse geeigneten Studiengang eintreten kann. Dies wird ermöglicht durch

- differenziertes Lehrmaterial
- individuelles Lernen (unabhängig von Ort und Zeit)
- relativ eigenständige Studieneinheiten

Grundsätzlich sollten die Studienbriefe, welche für die Bearbeitung einer bestimmten Lernphase des Blocks Sprachpraxis Voraussetzung sind, vom Teilnehmer zuvor durchgearbeitet worden sein. Anzahl und Dauer von Direktphasen sollten möglichst gering sein (Kostenfrage).

Aufbau

Direktphase (2 bis 3 Tage)

a. Einführung in die Arbeitstechnik und -methode des Lehrmaterials

b. Diagnose-Test (Ermittlung des Leistungsstandes der Teilnehmer)

Begründung

Es ist nur sehr schwer - wenn überhaupt - möglich, diese Inhalte in einer Fernstudienphase effektiv zu realisieren. Aus unserer Erfahrung können wir sagen, dass in diesem Stadium der Einarbeitung der persönliche Kontakt

der Teilnehmer untereinander und dem sie Unterrichtenden unbedingt erforderlich ist.

Die Durchführung des o.a. Sprechfertigkeits-Tests für die Diagnose der Teilnehmer ist unseres Erachtens nur in einer Direktphase möglich.

Fernstudienphase

Das Testergebnis (vgl. Abb. 1) entscheidet über den weiteren Studiengang des Teilnehmers. Es ergeben sich für ihn 2 Möglichkeiten.

1 Durcharbeit der Studienblöcke
2. Durcharbeit des Grundkurses

Zur Möglichkeit 1:

Der Teilnehmer hat den Diagnose-Test bestanden. Er ist nun in der Lage, die Studienblöcke

Phonetik
Intonation
Grammatik (I/II)
Vokabular

durchzuarbeiten. Diese Blöcke sind, wie oben ausgeführt, in sich abgeschlossen und beziehen sich auf einen inhaltlich begrenzten sprachlichen Bereich. Durch eine möglichst klare Definition der Eingangsvoraussetzungen und Ziele jedes dieser Blöcke soll der Adressat in der Lage sein zu entscheiden, ob das vorliegende Material seinen Erwartungen entspricht, und ob bei ihm die notwendigen Voraussetzungen gegeben sind. Die Arbeit an einem Studienblock soll ca. ein Semester dauern. Es besteht die Möglichkeit, mehrere Studienblöcke gleichzeitig durchzuarbeiten.

Zur Möglichkeit 2:

Der Teilnehmer hat den Diagnose-Test nicht bestanden, d.h. seine Grundkenntnisse lassen eine erfolgreiche Durcharbeit der o.a. Studienblöcke nicht erwarten. Er muss deshalb einen vorgeschalteten Grundkurs absolvieren. Dieser enthält 7 Lektionen ebenfalls in den Bereichen Phonetik, Intonation, Grammatik und Vokabular (vgl. Abb. 1).

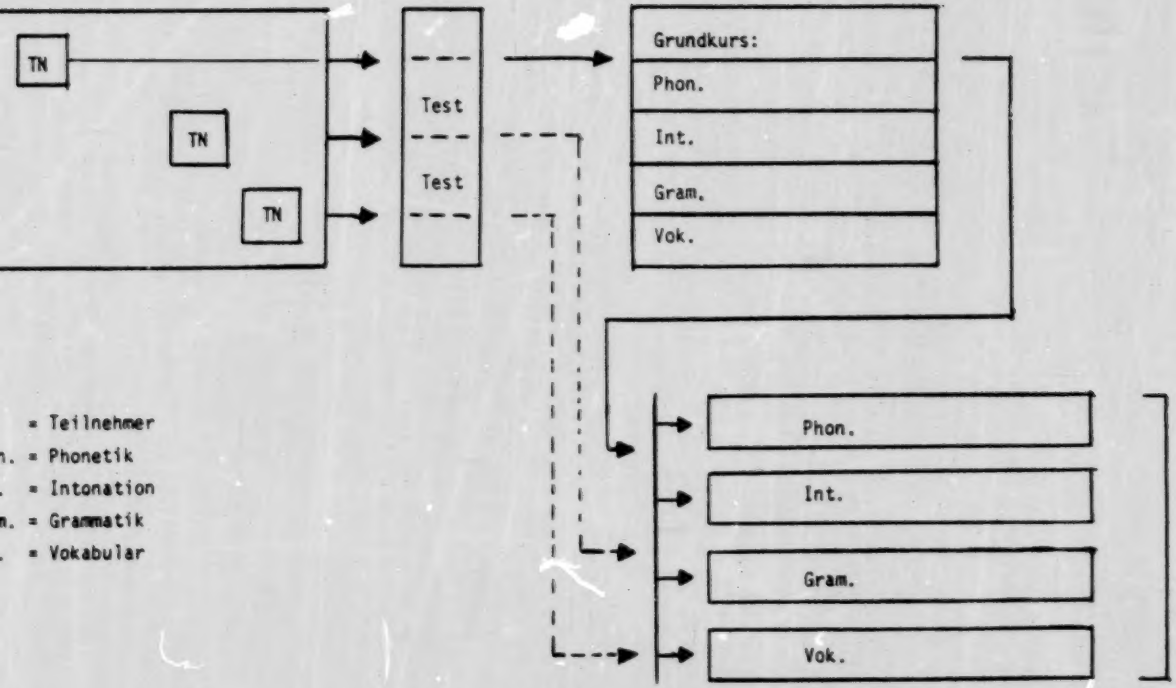
Diese Lektionen des Grundkurses, welche grundlegende sprachliche Kenntnisse und Fertigkeiten vermitteln sollen, werden wie folgt aufgebaut sein (vgl. Abb. 2):

Die Lektion setzt mit dem Material zur Phonetik und Intonation ein (Phasen I und II). Darauf folgt die Phase Grammatik A (Phase III). Hier werden in Dialogform einige der in dieser Lektion zu erarbeitenden Strukturen eingeführt und in zwei sich daran anschliessenden "Transformation Drills" gefestigt. Diese Phase enthält kein neues Vokabular, sondern reaktiviert dasjenige vorangegangener Lektionen. Die einzelnen Lektionen zielen im Bereich des Vokabulars auf die Erarbeitung von Wortfeldern und Kollokationen. In der Phase IV wird ein Teil des Wortfeldes eingeführt und durch entsprechende Übungsformen aktiviert.

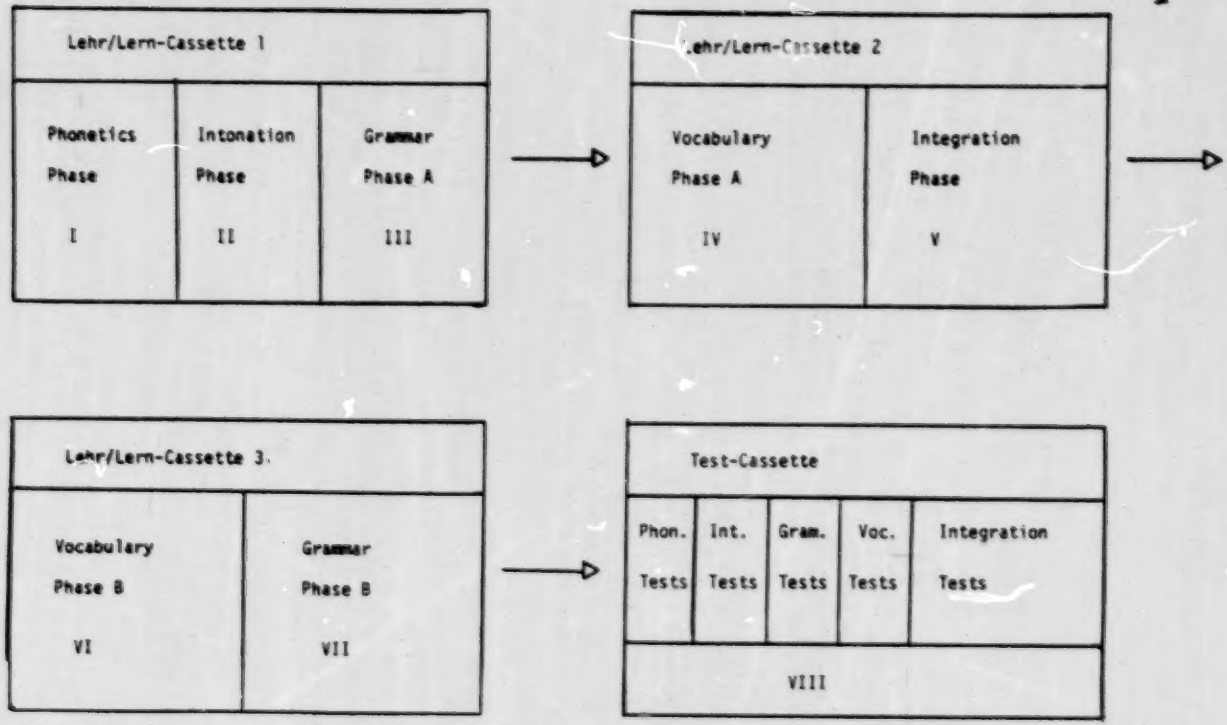
Während die Phasen I bis IV mehr auf das Lernziel des Erfassens der sprachlichen Einzelelemente ausgerichtet sind, geht es in Phase V um das Ziel der integrativen Verarbeitung dieser Elemente in einem umfassenden Kontext (Basic Text). In den Phasen VI und VII werden das Wortfeld in seinem

. 1

Aufbau des Blocksystems



= Teilnehmer
n. = Phonetik
. = Intonation
m. = Grammatik
. = Vokabular


Lehr/Lern-Cassette 1
Phonetics Phase I
Intonation Phase II
Grammar Phase A III
Lehr/Lern-Cassette 2
Vocabulary Phase A IV
Integration Phase V
Lehr/Lern-Cassette 3
Vocabulary Phase B VI
Grammar Phase B VII
Test-Cassette
Phon. Tests
Int. Tests
Gram. Tests
Voc. Tests
Integration Tests
VIII

endgültigen Umfang und die weiteren Funktionen der grammatischen Strukturen erarbeitet und gefestigt.

Der wichtige Bereich der Leistungsmessung und -bewertung wird dadurch abgedeckt, dass der Teilnehmer zwischen die einzelnen Phasen eingeschaltete Tests zur Eigenkontrolle (Internal Tests) und Fremdkontrolle (External Tests) bearbeitet. Die Tests zur Eigenkontrolle informieren den Adressaten nach Abschluss bestimmter Phasen über seinen Leistungsstand.

Die jede Lektion abschliessende Test-Phase (Phase VIII) enthält ausschliesslich Tests zur Fremdkontrolle durch den Tutor (vgl. dazu das unten beschriebene Korrekturverfahren). Die Tests beziehen sich sowohl auf die sprachlichen Einzelbereiche (Phonetik, Vokabular etc.), als auch auf die Integration der erarbeiteten sprachlichen Fähigkeiten und Fertigkeiten, also den Bereich der Sprachproduktion.

Bei der Bearbeitung der Lektion wird der Adressat zunächst durch die entsprechenden Materialien des Studienbriefes in die Gesamtthematik einschliesslich der theoretischen Grundlagen eingeführt. Beim sprachpraktischen Teil sind schriftliches Material (Written Material des Student's Manual) und Tonbandmaterial (Tape Material) integriert. Dies wird aus der Darstellung "Funktion der Medien" deutlich.

Funktion der Medien

Die an die vorliegende Konzeption gestellten Bedingungen in den Bereichen des Lehrens und Lernens, der Organisation und der Technik machen den Einsatz technischer Unterrichtsmedien notwendig. Ausser den oben erwähnten Forderungen (Seite 40) sind noch folgende zu berücksichtigen. Das Material soll objektiviert sein, d.h. es muss

- jederzeit abrufbar und beliebig reproduzierbar sein
- individualisierte Lernprozesse ermöglichen
- kriteriumbezogene Lernkontrollen ermöglichen.

Diese Forderungen machen den Einsatz folgender Medien notwendig:

- Schriftliches Material (Studienbriefe, Informations-, Arbeits- und Kontrollmaterial im Student's Manual)
- Tonband (Cassette)
- Film (Video oder Super 8): vgl. Abb. 3

Das schriftliche Material übernimmt folgende Funktionen:

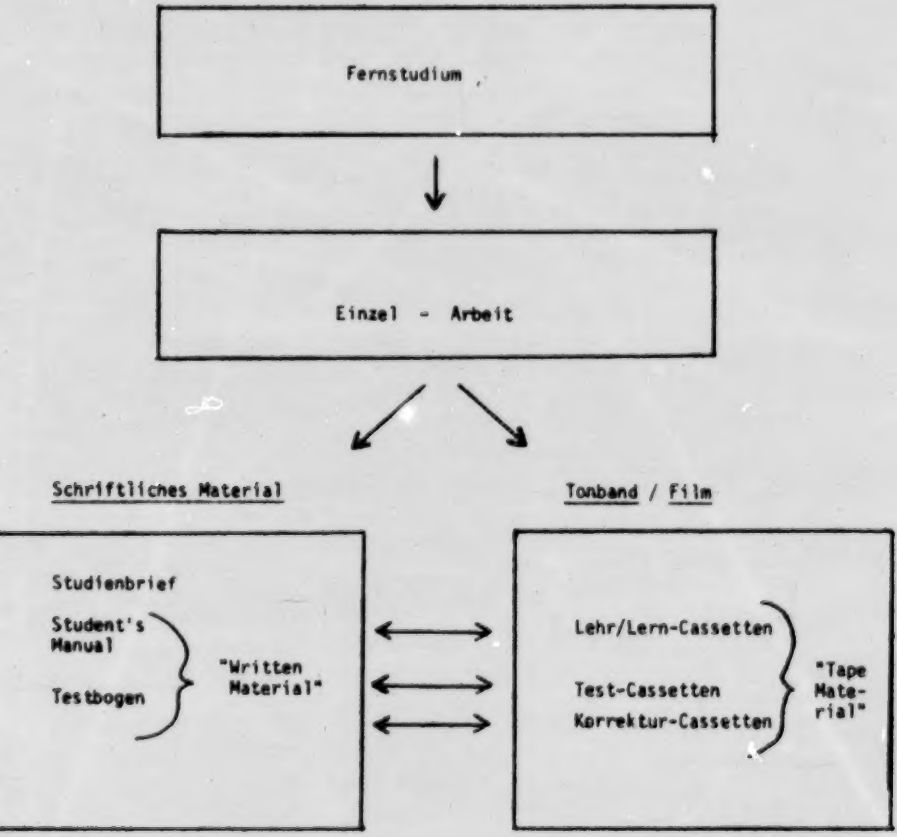
Studienbrief

1. Vermittlung theoretischen Grundwissens
2. Vertiefende Studienanleitung (Sekundärliteratur)
3. Nachschlagewerk

Schriftliches Lehrmaterial

1. Einführung und Erklärung des entsprechenden sprachlichen Phänomens
2. Leitfunktion (Lern- bzw. Arbeitsanleitung bzgl. der Abfolge der Unterrichtseinheit)

Abb. 3


Fernstudium
Einzel - Arbeit
Schriftliches Material
Tonband / Film
Studienbrief
Student's Manual
Testbogen
"Written Material"
Lehr/Lern-Cassetten
Test-Cassetten
Korrektur-Cassetten
"Tape Material"

3. Aufweis der Zusammenhänge zwischen z.B. grammatischen, lexikalischen und intonatorischen Komponenten
4. Aufgabenstellung und -bearbeitung mit dem Ziel der Sprachreproduktion und -produktion
5. Möglichkeiten der Eigenkontrolle und Fremdkontrolle.

Tonband und Cassette

1. Permanente Konfrontation mit dem "native speaker" (d.h. fehlerfreies sprachliches Vorbild, normales Sprechtempo, verschiedene Akzente der Umgangssprache)
2. Aufzeichnung der Adressatenleistung, d.h.
   - Möglichkeit der Eigen- und Fremdkontrolle
   - Evaluierung und Revision des Lehrmaterials
   - Differenzierung des individuellen Lerntempos

Film (Video oder Super 8)

1. Steuerung und Kontrolle der Sprechleistung bei Transformationsübungen
2. Effektivierung des Lehr- und Lernmaterials (Strecker 1973), besonders im Bereich der Intonation (Maier 1972 und 1974)

Korrekturverfahren

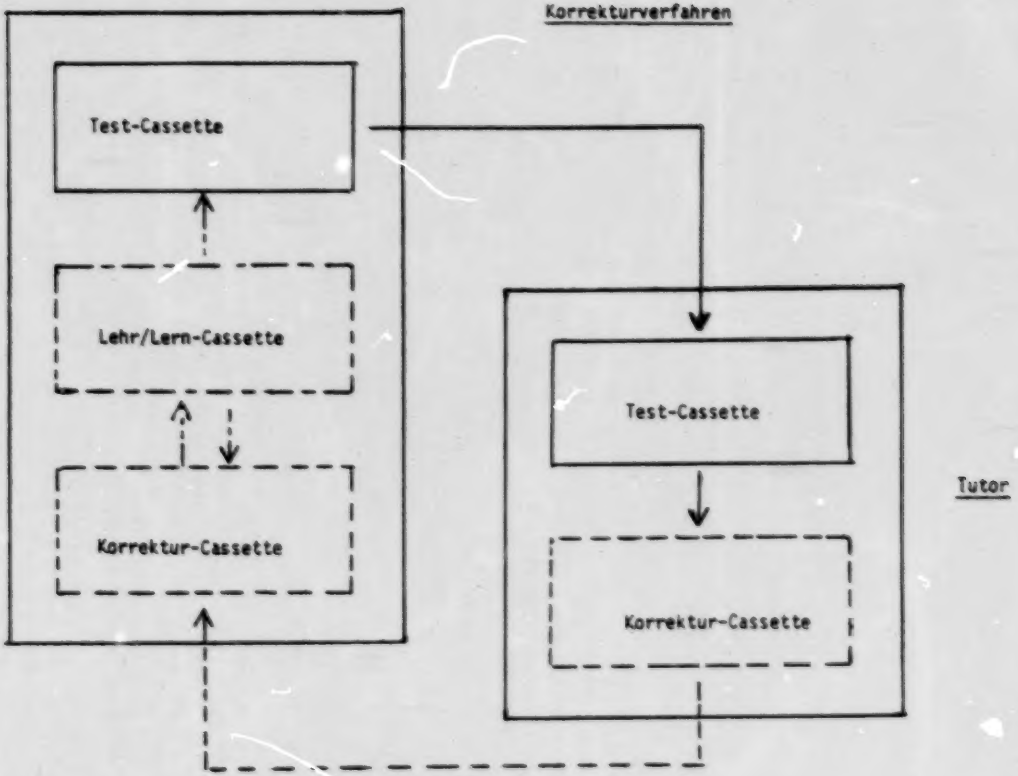
Eine unabdingbare Forderung innerhalb jedes Lernprozesses ist die Leistungskontrolle (s.o.). Zur Realisierung dieser Forderung wurde folgendes Korrekturverfahren entwickelt (vgl. Abb. 4). Jede Lektion enthält drei Arten von Cassetten

- Lehr-Cassetten
- Test-Cassetten
- Korrektur-Cassetten

Auf den Lehr-Cassetten befindet sich das Übungsmaterial, das zusammen mit dem Written Material (Student's Manual) vom Teilnehmer durchgearbeitet wird. Die einzelnen Informations- bzw. Übungsschritte sind durch die Bezeichnung "Step" gekennzeichnet. Nach einer bestimmten Step-Abfolge innerhalb des jeweiligen sprachlichen Bereichs (Phasen I - VII) muss der Teilnehmer zur Kontrolle seines Lernfortschritts die oben erwähnten (External Tests" durcharbeiten, die in einer, der Lernsequenz entsprechenden Reihenfolge auf der Test-Cassette gespeichert sind. Zusätzliche "Internal Tests" befinden sich auf der Lehr-Cassette und dienen im unmittelbaren Kontext des Übungsmaterials im Zusammenhang mit Lösungsbogen der Lernkontrolle durch den Teilnehmer.

Nach der Durcharbeit einer jeden Lektion schickt der Teilnehmer die Test-Cassetten zur Korrekturabteilung, behält jedoch die Lehr-Cassetten zurück. In der Korrekturabteilung werden die Test-Cassetten von einem Tutor (native speaker) abgehört. Dieser überspielt bestimmte Stellen des Testprogramms (Stimulus und Teilnehmer-Response), deren Auswahl aufgrund vorher festgelegter Lernkriterien bestimmt worden ist, auf eine Korrektur-Cassette und zeichnet ebenfalls Hinweise zur Fehlerkorrektur dazu auf. Dabei

Korrekturverfahren



bezieht er sich auf die betreffenden Stellen der bereits vom Teilnehmer durchgearbeiteten Lektion (z.B. Work through again Lesson 1, Step 5-8 etc.). Zusammen mit der folgenden Lektion (2) schickt der Tutor die so angefertigte Korrektur-Cassette dem Teilnehmer zu. Dieser hört zunächst die Korrektur-Cassette auf seinem Gerät ab und folgt dabei den Anweisungen seines Tutors, d.h. der Teilnehmer kann nochmals als Ergänzung zur Korrektur die erwähnten Passagen (Lesson 1, Step 5-8) auf den noch bei ihm befindlichen Lehr-Cassetten der vorhergehenden Lektion (1) im Zusammenhang mit dem dazugehörenden Written Material durcharbeiten. Die Angabe der Zählwerknummer für seinen Cassettenrecorder, welche sich der Adressat bei der ersten Durcharbeit der Lektion notiert hat, erleichtert ihm das Auffinden der vom Tutor angeführten Stellen. Erst nachdem der Teilnehmer die vom Tutor auf der Korrektur-Cassette gegebenen Aufgaben ausgeführt hat, wendet er sich der neuen Lektion (2) zu und bearbeitet sie wie oben beschrieben.

Aufgrund organisatorischer bzw. finanzieller Überlegungen würden sich zwei Arten der Rücksendung von Cassetten ergeben:

1. Nach Durcharbeit der Korrektur-Cassette schickt der Teilnehmer diese und die Lehr-Cassetten der bearbeiteten Lektion (1) an die Korrekturabteilung zurück.

2. Der Teilnehmer arbeitet die mit der Korrektur-Cassette zugesandten Lehr-Cassetten der folgenden Lektion (2) durch und schickt diese dann gemäss dem ihm vorliegenden Zeitplan zusammen mit den Lehr-Cassetten der "alten" Lektion (1) an die Korrekturabteilung zurück.

Die letztgenannte Art der Rücksendung würde eine Erhöhung der Stückzahlen von Lehr-Cassetten pro Lektion erforderlich machen, wenn die Bildung von Teilnehmergruppen gleichzeitig geschähe. Würde die Zusammenstellung der Gruppen sukzessiv erfolgen, müssten die Anfangstermine dem Rhythmus des Rücksendeplans der bereits arbeitenden Gruppen angepasst werden, um Überschneidungen (d.h. auch finanzielle Mehrbelastungen) zu vermeiden.

Neben dem geschilderten variablen Versendungsmodus und den damit sich notwendigerweise ergebenden organisatorischen und finanziellen Konsequenzen muss im Zusammenhang des beschriebenen Korrekturverfahrens auf entscheidende Vorteile gegenüber dem Verfahren hingewiesen werden, welches das DIFF in seinen Testlehrgängen bis Ende 1972 angewandt hat (vgl. Strecker 1972). Damals existierten nur Lehr-Cassetten, d.h. keine Test-Cassetten. Aus diesem Grunde war eine auf ein Lernkriterium bezogene Leistungskontrolle kaum möglich. Ausserdem war durch das völlige Fehlen von Internal Tests für den Teilnehmer keine Möglichkeit gegeben, seinen Leistungsstand innerhalb der einzelnen Lernphasen zu kontrollieren. Er musste, wie oben ausgeführt, 14 Tage auf die lernpsychologisch entscheidende Rückkopplung warten. Nach der Durcharbeit der Lehr-Cassetten muss der Teilnehmer diese an die Korrekturabteilung des DIFF zurücksenden, er durfte sie also nicht - wie nach dem neuen Verfahren - bis zum Empfang der Korrektur-Cassette bei sich behalten.

Durch die jetzige Aufteilung in Lehr- und Test-Cassetten ergibt sich für den Tutor eine enorme Zeitersparnis. Musste er früher bestimmte, zwar z.T. vorher festgelegte Stellen auf den ausschliesslich vorhandenen Lehr-Cassetten umständlich suchen, so ist für ihn jetzt lediglich die vom Teilnehmer besprochene Test-Cassette zum Abhören bzw. zur Korrektur vor-

gesehen. Hier zeigt sich ein wesentlicher Vorteil des Tonbands in der Cassette gegenüber der üblichen Spule. Der Teilnehmer braucht nach der Überarbeitung eines Tests (z.B. in Phonetik) bei der Cassette nicht das Band an den Anfang zurückzuspulen, sondern tauscht am Ende des Tests für die Weiterarbeit an der Lektion lediglich die Test-Cassette gegen die Lehr-Cassette aus. Er benützt letztere so lange, bis ihm im Written Material die Anweisung zur Durcharbeit der nächsten Test-Einheit (z.B. in Intonation) gegeben wird. Dann wechselt er die Lehr-Cassette mit der Test-Cassette: er befindet sich zwangsläufig am Ende bzw. am Anfang des jeweiligen Tests. Im Gegensatz zu früher braucht der Tutor jetzt nicht mehr in seinen Ausführungen auf der Korrektur-Cassette die für die Teilnehmer unbedingt erforderlichen Zusammenhänge, in denen die zu korrigierende Stelle steht, nochmals zu erklären. Da der Teilnehmer bei Erhalt der Korrektur-Cassette noch seine alte Lektion (Lehr-Cassetten und Written Material) besitzt, kann sich der Tutor lediglich auf Hinweise dazu beschränken und - falls es ihm die Zeit erlaubt - die gemachten Fehler ausführlicher korrigieren und weitere Beispielsätze geben. Aufgrund der o.a. Voraussetzung wird möglich.

- für den Tutor: eine zeiteffektive, durchgehende und genaue Überwachung des Lernfortschritts
- für den Teilnehmer: eine sinnvolle und gezielte Nacharbeit schwieriger Stellen
- für die Evaluation: verbunden mit der objektiven Leistungskontrolle exakte Anhaltspunkte für Programmänderung bzw. -differenzierung.

Zusammenfassung

Die hier vorgelegte Konzeption eines Fernstudiums für den Bereich der Fort- und Weiterbildung stellt keine Alternative zu traditionellen Verfahren dar, sondern eröffnet neue Möglichkeiten, bestimmten Adressatengruppen Studiengänge anzubieten, die durch Flexibilität, variable Einsetzbarkeit, Individualisierung und Kontrolle des Lernprozesses ein hohes Mass an Effektivität ermöglichen. Auch Lehr- und Lernstrategien in Direktstudienphasen können durch diese Art objektivierten Materials ergänzt und/oder erweitert werden. Dies wird vor allem durch ein Verbundsystem gewährleistet, welches ein besonderes Tonbandkorrespondenz-Verfahren einbezieht.

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Dr. Harald Maier OStR ist wissenschaftlicher Mitarbeiter am Deutschen Institut für Fernstudien an der Universität Tübingen und Lehrbeauftragter an einem Seminar für Studienreferendare für Fachdidaktik Englisch. Seine Arbeits- und Forschungsbereiche sind Lehrerfortbildung, Mediendidaktik, Visualisierung im Bereich Sprachpraxis.

OStR Bernd Strecker ist wissenschaftlicher Mitarbeiter am Deutschen Institut für Fernstudien an der Universität Tübingen. Seine Arbeits- und Forschungsgebiete sind Lehrerfortbildung, Mediendidaktik, Unterrichtsstrategien zum Training der freien Sprechfertigkeit.

Abstract

The extension of English teaching to all German secondary schools has obliged teachers to give language instruction while themselves lacking the necessary pedagogical training and also a suitable oral competence in English. The German Institute for Distance Teaching (DIFF) at the University of Tübingen has from 1968-1972 evolved a method of in-service training in these skills using a combination of brief intensive courses, correspondence material, and especially tape cassettes, a full course taking some two years to complete. The study packets have been constructed in independent but interlocking units to allow for flexibility and individualisation. The material has been extensively revised in the light of experience, and fundamental criteria for the fields of phonetics, intonation, grammar and vocabulary are given. The successive phases of individual units and of the course as a whole are described, as well as the media employed, with particular emphasis on the use of teaching and testing cassettes, and on the recent development of special correction cassettes, which have proved to have many advantages. NFD.

Herman F. Davies

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Mathieu, Gustave. "The case for tapes without pauses". Modern Language Journal 49, 1 (Jan. 65) 40-3

_____. "Techniques de laboratoire de langues pour les exercices structuraux". Le Français dans le Monde 43 (septembre 66) 25-8

Meiden, W. and Murphy, J. "The Language Laboratory and the reading Lesson". English Teaching Forum (USIP), ix/5, 1971

Montgomery, Michael. "Exploiting the tape-recorder", English Language Teaching (London), Vol XXV, 1971 No 3

Moore, G. A. B. A Study into Environmental Aspects of Student Accommodation in the Foreign Language Laboratory Montreal 30 pp. 1967 Available from ERIC, document ED 033 58
In this study, students claimed to prefer carrels (booths), but actually used tables when given the choice.

Najam, Edward W. (ed.) Materials and Techniques for the Language Laboratory. Report of the Language Laboratory Conference Held at Purdue University, Mar. 23-25, 1961. Bloomington, Ind.: Publication 18 of the Indiana University Research Center in Anthropology, Folklore, and Linguistics, 1962. 218 pp. Also in International Journal of American Linguistics 28, 1, Part 2

National Committee for Audio-Visual Aids in Education and Educational Foundation for Visual Aids. The use of language laboratories in Great Britain: a report based on a survey... Information collated and presented by Peter J. Vernon. N.C.A.V.A.E., E.F.V.A., 1965. 31 p. (Occasional Paper, I) Reprinted from Visual Education (July 65) 4-15

Newmark, Peter. "What language laboratories can do". Incorporated Linguist 5, 2 (Apr. 66) 42-8

Nygård, Anders. Språklaboratoriet. Tammerfors (Finland): Söderström & Co., 1971 279 pp.
A thorough Swedish-language examination of the theory and practice of the LL, pattern drills and programmes.

Pinas, Felix J. (ed.) Language Teaching Today. Report of the Language Laboratory Conference Held at Indiana University, Jan. 22-27, 1960. Bloomington, Ind.: Publication 14 of the Indiana University Research Center in Anthropology, Folklore, and Linguistics, 1960. 221 pp.

Olechowski, Richard. Das Sprachlabor, Theori - Methode - Effektivität. Freiburg 1. Br.: Herder, 1970. 122 pp. Schriftenreihe des Institutes für Bildungs- und Beratungsforschung.

O'Neal, Robert. "For a new look at laboratory planning". French Review 37, 4 (Feb. 64) 453-5
Concerned with LL lay-out.

Orschel, G. "Individualisierungsmöglichkeiten im programmierten Sprachlaborunterricht". Die Neueren Sprachen 21, 1972, 7, 383-386

Ovenden, Alvan. "A new wrinkle in master recording". Language Learning 14, 3-4 (64) 119-25

Paneth, Eva. "The teacher's apprentice". Modern Languages 45, 2 (June 64) 68-73
Suggestions for the use of the LL.

. "Tapes on tap". Audio-Visual Language Journal 3, 3

(Spring 66) 127-9
A storage and retrieval system for tapes.

Pimsleur, Paul. "The functions of the language laboratory". Modern Language Journal 43, 1 (Jan. 59) 11-15

Poulter, V. L. "Computer-Assisted Laboratory Testing", MLJ 53, 1969, 8, 561-564
The computer here used for evaluation and as a motivational factor.

Probyn, H. E. "The role of the monitor in the language laboratory". Audio-Visual Language Journal 3, 3 (Spring 66) 137-41

Procter, Leslie. "Self-instruction in the language laboratory". Audio-Visual Language Journal 4, 1 (Summer 66) 5-12

Rand, E. "A short Test of Oral English Profiency". Language Learning 13, 1963, 3/4, 203-210
Subtests A: Questions, B: Drill. Criteria for A: 1. utilization of time; 2. variety of sentence patterns; 3. correctness of pronunciation; 4. correctness of grammar. 5 grade scale, criticised by Pehse (see bibl.) as too finely differentiated for practical purposes.

Rawson-Jones, Keith. "A non-integrated language laboratory programme". Visual Education (Jan. 67) 29-31

Rivers, W. M. Teaching Foreign-Language Skills. Chicago and London: University of Chicago Press, 1968. 400 pp.
Devoted to the audio-lingual approach, this well-known work includes sections on programming and the language laboratory. Useful contribution to the theory of listening comprehension, and many other fields.

Roemmele, J. A. "The Practice and Method of Language Laboratory Teaching". English Language Teaching 20, 2 (Jan. 66) 153-8

_____. "The Language Laboratory as an Aid in Oral Tests Overseas". English Language Teaching 21, 1966, 1, 50-55

Roeske, E. "Eine Faustregel für den Einbau der Antwortpausen beim Besprechen von Tonbändern". Praxis des neusprachlichen Unterrichts, 12, 1965, 127-138

Rose, Brian. "Some Psychological considerations in language laboratory work". Education for Teaching 69 (Feb. 66) 26-30

Rude, B. R. "A Technique for Language Laboratory Testing". Language Learning 17, 1967, 3-4, 151-153

Sager, J. C. "Material for the language laboratory". Audio-Visual Language Journal 3, 1 (Spring 65) 5-8
A call for suitable drills.

Linguist 4, 3 (July 65), 70-2

Sager, J. C. "Cataloguing and administering a tape collection for the language laboratory". Audio-Visual Language Journal 4, 1 (Summer 66) 20-3

Scherer, George A. C. "The use and misuse of language laboratories". German Quarterly 38, 3 (May 65) 335-44

Scherts, Pierre. "Que faire d'un laboratoire de langues?" Le Français dans le Monde 31 (mars 65) 13-17

Schrand, Heinrich. "Zur Kontrolle mündlicher Leistungen im Sprachlabor". Das Sprachlabor und der Audiovisuelle Unterricht 1970, 1, 2-8
The advantages of the LL in the testing of oral abilities, eg. economy, objectivity of presentation and evaluation, repeat run-throughs to check different features, situational presentation.

_____. "Stand und Entwicklung des Technologischen Fremdsprachenunterrichts". In Freudenstein, R. (ed.) Focus '80 - Fremdsprachenunterricht in den siebziger Jahren. Berlin: Cornelsen & OUP, 1972. Also in System Vol 1, No. 1 (1973) 10-17
Concerned with the integration of the LL into language teaching. Fundamental principles of programming are stated, and the value of structural drills discussed. Also discusses multi-media presentations and possible lines of development.

Sell, D. "Some Uses of Tape Recordings in the Classroom". Modern English Journal 1, 1970, 1, 17-31
The use of recordings for dialogues, narrative texts, drills, and testing, all exemplified.

Smith, W. F. "Language Learning Laboratory". In Dale L. Lange (ed.) Britannica Review of Foreign Language Education. Volume two. Chicago: Encyclopaedia Britannica, Inc., 1970, xi, 369 pp.
A survey of articles on LL teaching in the United States in 1969.

_____. The Language Laboratory and the Electronic Classroom: A Comparison of Their Relative Contribution to Achievement in Three Languages in the Comprehensive High School. (Unpublished Ph D Dissertation) Purdue University, 1969.

Smith, W. F. and Berger. An Assessment of Three Foreign Language Teaching Strategies Utilising Three Language Laboratory Systems. Office of Education, Project No. 5-0683. 1968.

Smith, W. F. and Baranyi. A Comparison Study of the Effectiveness of the Traditional and Audiolingual Approaches to Foreign Language Instruction Utilising Laboratory Equipment. Office of Education, Project No. 7-0133. 1968.

"Speaking from experience: Choosing apparatus; Preparing material; In practice". Times Educational Supplement (27 May 66) 1690; (3 June 66) 1771; (10 June 66) 1850.

Das Sprachlabor in der Praxis. Dortmund: Lensing, 1965.

Stack, Edward M. "Pattern drills for the language laboratory". French Review 33, 3 (Jan. 60) 272-80

_____. The Language Laboratory and Modern Language Teaching. New York: Oxford University Press, 1966. 248 pp.
The original edition (1960) was one of the earliest and most important works on LL. Protagonist of the audiolingual method, also a behaviourist which is reflected in his use of drills. Still a valuable work, though with too narrow a concentration on mechanical structural drills.

Stendahl, Christina and Lusensky, Björn. Teaching English at University Level: Oral Proficiency Courses. Göteborg: Engelska Institutionen, University of Göteborg, 1972 (SPRENG-project report no. 13). (Mimeograph)
Describes the laboratory methods of training and testing spontaneous speech evolved in Gothenburg using the description of pictures and the reproduction of taped English passages. Also the teaching of Pronunciation and some other oral/aural skills.

Stork, F. C. "The language laboratory - what it can and cannot do". Audio-Visual Language Journal 4, 1 (Summer 66) 33-5

Strevens, Peter. "Universities and the revolution in language-teaching". Communication 44 (June 65), 32-44
With especial emphasis on the role of the LL in language teaching methodology.

"A tape marking machine". Times Educational Supplement (30 June 67) 2198

Tomko, C. J. and Adams, E. N. The IBM Research Experimental Language Laboratory. IBM Research Report RC 2518 (12137). Yorktown Heights, 24 June 1968.

Turner, Daymond. "Occupation: language laboratory director". Modern Language Journal 48, 3 (Mar. 64) 151-4

Turner, John, D. Introduction to the Language Laboratory. London: University of London Press, 1965. 110 pp. bibl.
Equipment, administration, materials and methods.

Turner, John, D. (ed.) Using the Language Laboratory. London: University of London Press, 1968. 156 pp.
In five sections, dealing with LL work in the middle school, the sixth-form, the university, industry and continuing education, and technical schools.

_____. Programming for the Language Laboratory London: ULP, 1968. 263 pp.
The work of five English university teachers in English, French, German, Russian and Spanish is described.

Ulrich, P. "Systematische Leistungsbewertung im Sprachlabor". Das Sprachlabor und der Audiovisuelle Unterricht 1966, 4, 6-12
A system for evaluating the performance both of students and of laboratory programmes.

Uthess, Herbert. "Vorüberlegungen zur Erarbeitung von Unterrichtsmaterialen für die Arbeit in audiovisuellen Fremdsprachenkabinetten". Fremdsprachenunterricht 11, 1-2 (67) 82-8

Valette, Rebecca M. Modern language testing: a handbook, New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1967. xviii, 200 pp.
Proceeding from theoretical considerations, this is a practical handbook in the construction, administration and evaluation of tests, including those in the LL. Sections dealing with the basic skills of listening comprehension, speaking, reading and writing; also cultural knowledge and literature. Final section evaluates some commercial language tests.

_____. "Language Quizzes: A Means of Increasing Laboratory Effectiveness". Foreign Language Aurals 1, 1968, 1, 45-48

van Teslaar, A. P. "Learning new sound systems: problems and prospects". IRAL 3, 1965. 79-93
Deals especially with the problems of the LL.

Wakeman, Alan. "The language laboratory as an integrated part of a teaching programme". Visual Education (May 66) 36-7

Warburton, J. "Some uses of the language laboratory in post "O" level modern language studies". Audio-Visual Language Journal 4, 2 (Winter 66/67) 89-92

Whittaker, M. "Praktische Erfahrungen bei der Herstellung von Sprachlabor - Tonbändern". Film Bild Ton 1970:2.

Willis, Norman E. "A language laboratory for every school?" Education 128 (22 July 66) 166-8
Concerned with the publication of course material and the financial considerations involved.

Wisnikow, R. Für and wider das Gruppensprachlabor". programmiertes lernen und programmierter unterricht, 2, 1965, 119-123
The case for and against the audiopassive laboratory type.

Wright, N. P. "The sixth form in the language laboratory". Modern Languages 48, 2 (June 67) 77-80

Yalden, J. "Listening Comprehension in the Language Laboratory" NALLD Journal 5, 1971, 4, 11-27

Young, C. W. and Choquette, C. A. "An Experimental Study of the Relative Effectiveness of Four Systems of Equipment for Self-Monitoring in Teaching French Pronunciation". IRAL 3, 1965, 13-49

Higher Education Projects

The following brief descriptions of work in progress at some English universities are taken from Newsletter No. 2 June 1973 of the Nuffield Foundation Group on Research and Innovation in Higher Education, Nuffield Lodge, Regents Park, London NW1.

1. Interdisciplinarity

New Approaches to Literary Studies

The main programmes of the Department of English and Comparative Literary Studies at Warwick University are organised around parallel series of consecutive courses. The three genres, Epic, Novel, Drama, offer one such series, to which other related courses are attached in each year - thus Medieval longer poems with the Epic, Shakespeare with the European Theatre. The first year course in Practical Criticism in two languages leads (for one stream of students) to the further Comparative Literature courses. For others it provides a methodological basis for the second year American Literature programme, which also complements the European Novel course in the second year. The Modern Poetry course in the first year serves to introduce the subsequent two-year study of English poetry 1500-1900. Options permit a mainstream student to strengthen his central concerns in English Literature, or to pursue more wide-ranging interests in (or outside) the English Department.

Warwick also offers an interdisciplinary degree course in Philosophy and Literature. This is not a joint honours programme in the conventional sense. Instead of simply offering students a selection of separate philosophical and literary courses, an attempt is made to explore areas of common interest in an intergrated three-year course of study. This not only involves a substantial grounding in both disciplines, but also a developing enquiry into the relationships between them. It culminates during the final year in the intensive study of certain texts which are at once of philosophical substance and literary interest, in order to examine the interaction of different types of 'philosophical' and 'literary' analysis and critique. Such traditional oppositions as those of logic to rhetoric and form to content, together with their related distinctions, are explored, tested and modified in the context of this programme.

Contact: Professor G.K. Hunter, Department of English and Comparative Literary Studies, University of Warwick

Russian and German Courses Involving Specialist Studies

Combined courses involving a foreign language and another discipline are not uncommon, but the degree of integration between the elements can vary considerably. At Surrey University a degree course in linguistic and regional studies combines not only a study of the social, economic and political aspects of the area concerned (USSR, Germany and,

as from 1973, France) but also one of the following: Economics, Geography, International Relations and Law. The course extends over four years and the elected specialism is maintained throughout. After the second year, however, it is studied largely in the foreign language concerned, and is based upon source material from the country of origin. Thus in economics the work of Russian economists is studied through books, journals, newspaper articles, radio broadcasts, etc.

Students spend part of their time abroad. Those studying German spend one or two terms in a German University and either six or nine months working in that country. Those studying Russian normally spend some time at summer schools in the USSR or working with tourist parties both here and in Russia.

Contact: Professor R. B. Tilford, Department of Linguistic and Regional Studies, Surrey University

Engineering and Languages

The Engineering with French and Engineering with German B.Sc. degree courses at Bath University aim to enable students to reach a standard in engineering acceptable to the Council of Engineering Institutions, while at the same time equipping future engineers to live and work professionally in France or Germany.

In addition to time set aside for advanced language study in the School of Modern Languages, part of the engineering syllabus is taught in French or German in the school of Engineering. Laboratory instruction and report-writing are also carried out in the student's second language. Moreover, since the course is designed as a four-year sandwich scheme, part of the industrial training time is spent in French or German industry.

Contact: Professor J. Coveney, School of Modern Languages, Bath University

2. Teaching Methods and Resource-Based Learning

Television Series on Computer Programming

The departments of Computer Science at Manchester University and Computation at UMIST are using television in the teaching of computer programming to students in their own and other departments. Series have been produced on the programming languages ALGOL, COBOL and FORTRAN. These three series consist of ten to twelve lectures each and are accompanied by supporting material in books or printed notes. Each television lecture is followed by a session during which the student clarifies any points which gave him difficulty. This is done by tutorials and by completing some programming exercises, which put into practice the content of the lecture. Between each lecture the student has to write and 'debug' a program based on the material covered up to that point.

The series are based on the Standard Specifications of each language, rather than concentrating on their use on any particular computer. Because of this they have been successfully used in other institutions of higher education and in industry.

Contact: Mr. J.M. Triance, Department of Computation, University of Manchester Institute of Science and Technology

Tape/Slide Guides for Library Users

A group of over twenty university libraries are co-operating to produce tape/slide sequences designed to introduce their users to the literature of particular subjects, to abstracts and indexes, and to certain major reference works. This activity is being co-ordinated by a working party set up in 1970 by the Standing Conference of National and University Libraries (see Newsletter no. 1, page 24). To help with further development, the Office for Scientific and Technical Information (OSTI) has provided a grant of £ 15,580 to a team in the University of Surrey to carry out a detailed study of techniques of producing and evaluating materials of this kind.

The team, which includes two research fellows, Miss Lillian Maynard and Mr. Laurie Turner under the direction of Mr. Philip Hills, with Dr. Malcolm Stevenson acting in an advisory capacity, will work in close collaboration with the group of libraries playing an active part in tape/slide production. The resulting recommendations on methods of preparation will be made widely available, as will proposals on appropriate evaluation procedures. To guide the work, a seminar was held in March 1973 at which some 40 university librarians reviewed the needs of the student as a library user. Later in the project other workshops and seminars will be held to make the findings known. The study began early in 1973, and it is hoped to complete it by the end of 1974.

Contact: Mr. P.J. Hills, Institute for Educational Technology, University of Surrey

An Inter-Institutional Resource Centre

The University of London Audio-Visual Centre provides a central service of information, consultancy and production to the ten multi-disciplinary schools, the 14 medical schools and the 23 research institutes of the federal University. It thus has the problem, and the opportunity, of creating a focus for new approaches to the provision of resources and teh study of learning and teaching.

Some fifteen Boards of Studies, on which all undergraduate teaching institutions of the University are represented, have set up working parties to collaborate with the Centre. The five London polytechnics, which are connected to the London CCTV Network, also participate in several of these. As a result of their work, planning and production of learning materials are under way in chemistry, law, physics, history, English and drama, Romance languages and literature and other topics. The Centre normally requires that materials which it helps produce shall be available to other institutions in the University. On many occasions, the initiative of a single Department, or even of a single individual, has resulted in the production of TV or film materials which have subsequently been used elsewhere in the University, or have stimulated further work by a Board of Studies.

The London Centre enjoys a number of advantages from its central location. It is well placed to make recordings with distinguished visiting academics, and these are often widely circulated to other British universities. A technique is now being developed for the production of edited television recordings of scientific and other conferences. London has also provided a natural locale for the production of materials for the study of drama, and the Audio-Visual Centre is actively collaborating in the inter-university drama studies project initiated by the British Universities Film Council. Other collaborative ventures include an inter-university American history programme.

Contact: Mr. Michael Clarke, Director, London University Audio-Visual Centre, 11 Bedford Suuare, London WC1B 3RA

3. Assessment

Assessing by Course Essays and Vivas

The Department of German Studies at Warwick University has developed a system of assessment which - apart from two conventional three-hour language papers - is based on re-worked essays, supported by viva examinations. Each student presents two seminar papers for each of the four courses which he or she takes in a year. These are read, discussed and criticised during the seminar, but not assessed. Between the seminar and the end of the year, the student improves - or, if he likes, entirely rewrites - and extends his original papers; tutorial guidance is available all the time. The re-worked versions are then submitted for marking about a month before the summer examination. The latter also consists of an extensive viva, conducted by two members of staff (in the final year by the external examiner), which is based mainly on the student's papers, but also probes his general understanding of the courses. The student in addition presents a selection of tutorial essays, which are re-worked and assessed in the same way. The viva marks comprise about one-sixth of the total. Teaching virtually ceases at the end of the second term to make ample time available for intensive revision.

The system is generally agreed to have had a stimulating effect on course work, releasing to an unexpected degree the student's intellectual energy and initiative, and making it possible to pitch the standard of the examination very much higher. After their initial experience of a viva voce examination, students seem to have overcome a good deal of the nervousness they may have had about this form of test. There have been no troubles over plagiarism, or work not being handed in on time, and most students seem glad to have the opportunity to respond to a considerable challenge.

Contact: Professor R. Hinton Thomas, Department of German Studies, University of Warwick

4. The Context of Learning

Financing New Teaching Methods

Surrey University has a Teaching and Learning Methods Committee directly responsible to the Senate. It includes representatives from each of the four faculties, three students and the directors of the Institute of Educational Technology, the Audio Visual Aids Unit, and the Adult Education Centre. The Committee's aim is to encourage and support developments in teaching, learning and assessment methods. It co-operates with the Institute of Educational Technology, and among other activities organises lecture and discussion groups on the subject of teaching and learning in universities.

The Senate has agreed to set aside £5,000 each year to assist developments in this area: so far the total has been distributed by the committee in amounts varying from £25 to £1,400. Work supported in this way includes the preparation of two Keller Plan (independent learning) courses, the development of lecture and tutorial courses, and the production of audio-visual material in electrical engineering, languages, chemistry, biology and metallurgy.

Contact: Mr. P.J. McVey, Department of Electronic and Electrical Engineering, University of Surrey

A Departmental Teaching Committe

The departmental board of sociology at Keele University comprises all members of the teaching staff and students representing each year of the course. When it was found that issues concerning course content and teaching methods were frequently raised at board meetings and there was seldom time to consider them in the detail they deserved, a separate teaching sub-committe of main stream sociology teaching staff and students was set up. Meetings of the sub-committee now take place every fortnight, and any member of the University is invited to take part: to this end, the meetings are publicised as widely as possible.

At each session a different member of staff is invited to talk about his or her course and to explain, before a critical audience, the rationale behind its content and method of teaching. This has proved a testing, but productive, experiment for the teachers concerned: as a result of the discussion generated by such meetings, a plan has been evolved to replace a substantial part of the existing lecture/seminar system with a workship/project approach.

The final details have not yet been worked out, but it seems likely that the first trials of the new scheme will take place in the summer term of 1973. Each workshop will probably comprise up to fifteen students from all three years: every student may be expected to participate in five workshops over a two-year period. For example one workshop may concentrate on sociological theory, another on a detailed study of a certain author or series of authors, and the third on a specific problem area. The results of each study carried out by a student group will be made available to all other groups. The department has recognised the need for adequate learning resources for such a programme, and as a first step has installed new offset litho and platemaking equipment.

Contact: Prof RJ Frankenberg, Department of Sociology, University of Keele

CALENDAR

24-28 Feb 74	American Association of Community Junior Colleges, Washington D.C. Contact: James W. White, VP Admin., 1 Dupont Circle St., 410 N.W. Washington, D.C. 20036, USA
12-15 Mar 74	Western Fourth Annual Education Technology Conference, San Francisco, Calif. Contact: Educational Technology Publications 140 Sylvan Avenue Englewood Cliffs, N.J. 07632, USA
14-16 Mar 74	Georgetown Round Table Conference on Linguistics, Georgetown University Contact: Francis P. Dineen Department of Linguistics Georgetown University Washington, D.C. 20007, USA
15-17 Mar 74	National Conference on the Language Arts in the Elementary Schools, Olympic Hotel, Seattle, Washington Contact: Robert F. Hogan NCTE 1111 Kenyon Road Urbana, Illinois 61801, USA
17-22 Mar 74	Association of Education Communications Technology, Atlantic City, N.J. Contact: Fred Wehrli Convention Coordinator 1201 16th St., N.W. Washington, D.C., 20036, USA
24-27 Mar 74	Eastern Fourth Annual Education Technology Conference, Miami Beach, Florida Contact: Educational Technology Publications 140, Sylvan Avenue Englewood Cliffs, N.J. 07632, USA
26-29 Mar 74	First British Conference on Computers in Higher Education, Lancaster University Contact: Conference Department, NCC Quay House Quay Street Manchester M3 3HU, England
1 - 5 Apr 74	Third Symposium on the Use of Computers in Literary and Linguistic Research, University College, Cardiff, South Wales Contact: Professor R.F. Churchhouse Literary Computing Conference

University College
39 Park Place
Cardiff CF1 3BB
South Wales

4 - 6 Apr 74 — Northeast Modern Language Association, Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Penn.
Contact: Madelyn Gutwirth
West Chester State College
West Chester, Pa. 19380, USA

15-17 Apr 74 — American Educational Research Association, Chicago, Illinois
Contact: AERA Meeting Coordinator
1126 Sixteenth St., NW.,
Washington, D.C. 20036, USA

15-20 Apr 74 — 14th International Congress of Linguistics and Romance Philology, Naples, Italy
Contact: Secretariat
Via Mezzocannone, 16
I-80145
Naples, Italy

16-20 Apr 74 — Annual Convention of the National Society for Performance and Instruction, Deauville Hotel, Miami Beach, Florida
Contact: Judy Springer, the Athena Corporation, 5423 Audubon Rd., Bethesda, Maryland 20014, USA

18-20 Apr 74 — Central States Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, Mare-Plaza Hotel, Milwaukee, Wisconsin
Contact: William Clapper
2715 Wesley St.,
Jefferson City, Missouri 65101, USA

18-20 Apr 74 — Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, Washington Hilton Hotel, Washington, D.C.
Contact: James W. Dodge
Box 623
Middlebury, Vermont 05753, USA

19-20 Apr 74 — Pacific Northwest Conference on Foreign Languages, Ridpath Motor Hotel, Spokane, Wash.
Contact: Sara Ellen Maluag
Dept. of Modern Languages
Oregon State University
Corvallis, Oregon 97331, USA

25-27 Apr 74 — Kentucky Foreign Language Conference, Univ. of Kentucky
Contact: Theodore Mueller
Foreign Language Conference

University of Kentucky
Lexington, KY 40506, USA

4 - 5 May 74 — Society for the Advancement of Scandinavian Study, George Washington University, Washington, D.C.
Contact: John G. Allee
George Washington University
Washington, D.C. 20006, USA

8-19 July 74 — Workshop on Individualizing Foreign Language Instruction, West Chester State College, West Chester, Penn. 19380
Contact: Ronald Gougher, Director of Summer Workshop
Foreign Language Department
West Chester State College
West Chester, Penn. 19380, USA

15 Jul-7 Aug 74 — First Summer School of the European Institute of Applied Linguistics. Theme: Applied Socio-Linguistics.
Universitaire Campus, Hasselt, Belgium

5 - 10 Aug 74 — Workshop on Curriculum for Individualizing Foreign Language Instruction
Place and contact: see above, Workshop..
(Deadline for both workshops is April 30)

5 - 10 Aug 74 — IFIP Congress 74, St. Erik's Fairgrounds, Stockholm
Contact: Par Svenonius
Swedish Office for Administrative Rationalization and Economy

9 - 10 Oct 74 — 6. Arbeitstagung der Gesellschaft für Angewandte Linguistik, (GAL) e.v.
Contact: Detlev Riebicke
Universität Stuttgart
Federal Republic of Germany

17-20 Oct 74 — Rocky Mountain Modern Language Association
El Paso, Texas
Contact: Robert M. Esch
Department of English
University of Texas, El Paso 79968, USA

NEWSLETTERS RECEIVED BY SYSTEM

ACIT Newsletter (Vol.1, No. 3 Nov 1971 -), Associate Committee on Instructional Technology, National Research Council of Canada, Montreal Road, Ottawa, Canada K1A OR6

AILA Bulletin (No. 3 June-July 1970 -), International Association for Applied Linguistics, University of Stuttgart, D-7000 Stuttgart, Germany

ALLC Bulletin (Vol.1, No. 2 Summer 1973 -), Association for Literary and Linguistic Computing, Mrs Joan M. Smith, 6 Sevenoaks Ave., Heaton Moor, Stockport, Cheshire SK4 4AW, England

Creativity (No.2 March 1973 -), Instituto de Idiomas Yázigi, Centro de Linguística Aplicada, Av. 9 de Julho 3166, Sao Paulo, SP. Brasil

ELTI (English Language Teaching Information Vol. 3, No. 3 June 1973), Radmila Đorđević, 11 000 Beograd, Brace Nedića 2, Yugoslavia

English Teachers' Journal, (No. 11, Nov. 1973), Ministry of Education and Culture, Pedagogical Secretariat, English Inspectorate, P.O.B. 292, Jerusalem, Israel

Individualisation of Foreign Language Learning in America, (V. December, 1972 -), Foreign Language Department, West Chester State College, West Chester, Pa. 19380, USA

Kielikeskusuutisia (Language Centre News No. 2, 4.10.73 -), Jyväskylän yliopisto, Vapaudenkatu 6, 40100 Jyväskylä 10, Finland

Lenguaje y Ciencias (promised), Departamento de Idiomas y Linguística, Trujillo, Peru

Lingua e Civiltà (No. 1 April 1968 -), Centro di Linguistica Applicata e Didattica delle Lingue, Villaggio Badia, Via Undecima, n. 16, 25100 Brescia, Italy

RELC Newsletter (Vol.6, No. 2 June 1973), SEAMEO Regional English Language Centre, 30 Orange Grove Road, Singapore 10.

Undervisa vid GU (Teaching at Gothenburg University, No.1/73 -), Göteborgs Universitet, sektionen för pedagogiskt utvecklingsarbete, Viktoriagatan 13, 411 25 Göteborg, Sweden

ADDENDUM

ATESOL Newsletter, (January 1974), 99 St. Stephen's Green, Dublin 2, Ireland